

Theses and Dissertations

---

2016

## The next generation of leaders in law enforcement: critical characteristics, competencies, and professional experiences

Johnny C. Chanchang

Follow this and additional works at: <https://digitalcommons.pepperdine.edu/etd>

---

### Recommended Citation

Chanchang, Johnny C., "The next generation of leaders in law enforcement: critical characteristics, competencies, and professional experiences" (2016). *Theses and Dissertations*. 666.  
<https://digitalcommons.pepperdine.edu/etd/666>

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by Pepperdine Digital Commons. It has been accepted for inclusion in Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Pepperdine Digital Commons. For more information, please contact [bailey.berry@pepperdine.edu](mailto:bailey.berry@pepperdine.edu).

Pepperdine University  
Graduate School of Education and Psychology

THE NEXT GENERATION OF LEADERS IN LAW ENFORCEMENT:  
CRITICAL CHARACTERISTICS, COMPETENCIES, AND PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCES

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction  
of the requirements for the degree of  
Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership

by

Johnny C. Chanchang

June, 2016

Ronald Stephens, Ed. D. – Dissertation Chairperson



This dissertation, written by

Johnny C. Chanchang

under the guidance of a Faculty Committee and approved by its members, has been submitted to and accepted by the Graduate Faculty in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Doctoral Degree of Education in Organizational Leadership.

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

Doctoral Committee:

Ronald Stephens, Ed.D., Dissertation Chair

Jack McManus, Ph.D., Committee Member

James H. Frank, J.D. Committee Member

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES.....	vii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	viii
VITA.....	ix
ABSTRACT.....	x
Chapter 1: Introduction.....	1
Introduction.....	1
Background and Recent History of the Issue.....	3
Statement of the Problem.....	4
Significance of the Problem.....	5
Statement of the Purpose.....	6
Research Questions.....	8
Research Method Appropriateness.....	8
Theoretical Framework.....	9
Key Definitions.....	10
Key Assumptions.....	11
Limitations of the Study.....	11
Delimitations.....	12
Summary.....	13
Chapter 2: Review of the Literature.....	14
Introduction.....	14
Leadership.....	14
Approaches.....	30
Applications of Leadership Assessments.....	46
Discussion and Analysis.....	49
Impending Leadership Crisis.....	52
Summary.....	53
Chapter 3: Methods.....	55
Introduction.....	55
Statement of the Problem.....	55
Purpose of the Study.....	57
Research Questions.....	58
Research Design.....	58
Procedures and Analysis.....	59
Limitations of the Study.....	65
Summary.....	66

Chapter 4: Results.....	68
Introduction.....	68
Selection Process of the Participants.....	68
Interview Process.....	70
Transcription and Coding.....	71
Question 1 Results.....	71
Question 2 Results.....	72
Question 3 Results.....	73
Question 4 Results.....	75
Question 5 Results.....	76
LAPD Survey Results.....	76
Chapter 5: Conclusion.....	85
Introduction.....	85
Analysis of the Interview Data.....	85
Implications for the Future.....	92
Recommendations for Future Research.....	95
Conclusion.....	97
REFERENCES.....	101
APPENDIX A: IRB Approval Letter.....	106
APPENDIX B: Blank Consent Form.....	107

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Section 1 results.....	79
Figure 2. Section 2 results.....	80
Figure 3. Section 3 results.....	81
Figure 4. Section 4 results.....	82

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to express sincere appreciation to Dr. Fortson, who inspired and motivated me the entire time. Thank you for always being there for me, supporting me, believing in me, and for making sure I kept motivating throughout the entire process. I am so fortunate to have you as my instructor, my mentor and my friend. Thank you for believing in me and for making sure I kept smiling throughout it all.

I will be eternally grateful for the guidance of my dissertation chair, Dr. Stephens, my dissertation members, Dr. McManus and Mr. Frank. You all gave me the courage to be “unreasonable” and to strive to achieve more than I ever thought possible. Thank you all for always supporting me. I am so fortunate to have you all as my chair, committee members and as my friends.

All of your support while I was in Afghanistan, serving our greatest nation means so much to me and I will never forget that.

Also special thank you to all of the executive members in law enforcement and Honorary Mayor who graciously agreed to participate in this study. I was amazed by the willingness of all of the executives who selflessly gave of their busy time and participated in all of my interviews.

Last but not least, I would like to offer special thanks to a good friend of mine, Ms. Courtney Shields; your wisdom and guidance and friendship are tremendously valuable and much appreciated.



## Vita

**EDUCATION**

**Pepperdine University** – Malibu, California (2009-2016)

*Doctoral Candidate; EDOL (GPA: 3.65/4.00)*

**Webster University** – Los Angeles Air Force Base, CA (2006-2008)

*Master of Arts, Security Management (GPA: 3.53/4.00)*

**Assumption University** – Bangkok, Thailand (1988-1991)

*Bachelor of Arts, Business Management (GPA: 3.20/4.00)*

**FBI Academy** – Quantico, Virginia (2006)

**PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE****Federal Bureau of Investigation**

*Intelligence, Air Operations, Certified Interview and Interrogation Instructor*

*(October, 2006 – present)*

**United States Naval Reserve**

*Officer In Charge, Coastal Riverine Squadron*

*(May, 1997 – present)*

**Publications**

**The Re-Evolution of American Street Gangs** (2015)

**United States Intelligence Community-** Classified documents (2006 - present)

**Volunteer Works****Los Angeles Community Advisory Board**

*(December, 2006 – present)*

**White House Initiative on Asian Americans and Pacific Islander**

*(January, 2016– present)*

**FBI: Veteran’s Affairs Advisory board for FBI Vets**

*(January, 2016– present)*

## ABSTRACT

Identifying effective leadership is a major issue law enforcement agencies throughout the U.S. face, especially as officers face numerous life-threatening situations in an average workday. Strong leadership in these organizations can lead to organizational and cultural unity that protects officers and allows them to do their jobs more effectively. It behooves these organizations, then, to encourage cultures that can cultivate leadership qualities in officers prior to them being promoted to leadership positions. To do so, personality characteristics consistent with strong and positive leadership skills must be identified. This research project studied and compared the indicators of potential leadership in U.S. law enforcement. The purpose of this study was to explore these indicators from the perspective of highly experienced leaders from various federal, county and local law enforcement agencies throughout Southern California. The study employed Sequential Mixed Methods Exploratory Design, using one on one interviews to gather qualitative data from eight selected leaders in law enforcement. For a purposive sample, after using qualitative analysis and coding, a survey questionnaire was designed and distributed to police officer recruits at the LAPD academy. Four items emerged as critically important for future leader in law enforcement: (a) strong interpersonal skills that allow leaders to interact positively with employees and the community, (b) an interested in organizational goals and agendas outside of the leader's own, (c) the importance of leading my example, and (d) acknowledgement of the important of public and media relations and how they impact policing. The findings of this study may be utilized by current and aspiring Police Chiefs at the local, county, and state level, as well as Senior Executive Service members of federal law enforcement agencies. Furthermore, the results of this study indicate the need for additional research that explores interviewees' expectations regarding future law enforcement leaders as well as

methodologies to effectively identify and select candidates that are likely to be successful as leaders in law enforcement

## **Chapter 1: Introduction**

### **Introduction**

Identifying effective leadership for law enforcement agencies is a major issue throughout the United States as officers face a number of life-threatening circumstances during the average workday. Strong leadership in these organizations can result in organizational and cultural unity that protects officers and allows them to more effectively do their jobs. It behooves law enforcement organizations, then, to identify critical leadership qualities in officers prior to them being placed in leadership positions. To do so, personality characteristics consistent with strong and positive leadership skills must be identified. This research project will study and compare the indicators of potential leadership in U.S. law enforcement.

The attitudes and values that law enforcement officers have towards their jobs is often a reflection of their leadership attributes. Weak leadership impedes officers' ability to perform their duties in ways that benefit their organizations and communities. Officers perceive their work conditions to be more hazardous when top leadership lacks the necessary leadership skills; managers' responsibilities exist whether or not they have the necessary skills. Because of such deficiencies, some law enforcement agencies experience high turnover rates and a greater risk to officer safety and effectiveness, which negatively impacts the organization and the community that these officers serve. As a result of this ineffectiveness, officers may also become apathetic in their duties toward their agency and the community.

This effect has also been observed in persons in other fields with similar levels of stress and risk. For instance, researchers in the 1990s began to acknowledge that the health care profession suffered from significant retention and attrition problems due to the risk and stress in work environment (Kramer and Schmalenberg, 1991). Other parallels can also be drawn between

the health care field and the law enforcement work environment.

In the 21<sup>st</sup> century, most major law enforcement agencies and organizations can no longer rely on any individual or small group of team leaders. To develop leaders (which includes not just those with supervisory titles), law enforcement executives or boards of directors must create a culture within their organizations that supports dispersed leadership. This means that executive leadership in these organizations must establish expectations that all officers will take leadership initiatives at their levels of responsibility. Besides mentoring or coaching people on how to lead individuals and groups of individuals, implementing successful leadership programs or administering effective climate surveys will help instruct and demonstrate to future leaders the skills needed to lead groups, organizations and efforts toward change. This indicates a prerequisite for leadership with great potential, which can be seen in the rank-and-file, who could one day be promoted to leadership positions in their organization.

Findings from more recent research indicates that previous leadership in law enforcement organizations has a significant impact on actions taken and decisions made by officers in the field (Engel & Worden, 2003). The previous leadership includes the procedures that officers were required to follow at the station, in the field, or in other in-house settings, such as when attending court or visiting attorneys' offices. Organizational problems arise when officers perceive that the expectations and policies of law enforcement leadership are divorced from the realities of the officers' daily experiences. Likewise, leaders may believe that the officers they oversee do not understand the bureaucratic realities of the organizations they serve. It is critical in these organizations to foster positive relationships between officers and leadership in order to promote effectiveness within the organization, which then leaves a positive impact on the communities served by these agencies (Engel & Worden, 2003). Identifying leadership qualities

that allow for these relationships becomes necessary in order for law enforcement to achieve this effectiveness.

### **Background and Recent History of the Issue**

Law enforcement officers have admitted that they find certain areas of their jobs dissatisfying. A major component of this dissatisfaction is a result of previously experienced leadership, which was a consequence of the organizational setting. Leaders contribute to occupational challenges experienced by law enforcement officers through various direct and indirect behaviors. Previous research on leadership among law enforcement agencies in the United States suggests that a disconnect may exist between officers and their supervisors in regards to perceptions of what contributes to best practices in law enforcement (Conger & Fulmer, 2003). This includes differences in the perceived realities regarding policies, procedures, communication and personal interests.

A closer examination of these specific perceptions related to potential leadership in law enforcement would help in understanding how to implement best practices in their organizations, as well as help them mitigate deficiencies more effectively. Chapter 1 will outline the background of the problems leaders face while managing law enforcement agencies and will describe the purpose and significance of the proposed research. The chapter will also include an overview of the research methodology and research design suitability. The research questions will be introduced, as will the theoretical framework for the research. Chapter 1 will also outline definitions and assumptions, as well as discuss the scope, limitations and delimitations related to the research.

Leadership styles contribute to the overall efficiency of any organization. The outcomes of leadership differ according to the personalities of the leaders and the followers. There is no

doubt that leadership has profound psychological and emotional repercussions on the efficacy of an organization. The impact of leadership can be magnified if the leaders have influence on an individual officer or multiple officers within a shared environment (More, Wegener, & Miller, 2003).

Leadership with great potential can reduce stress in the work environment and can help retain trained and experienced officers. Developing potential leadership in law enforcement agencies, as well as learning how to magnify the impact of such leadership, is crucial to the success of these organizations. High turnover and attrition contribute to toxic and dysfunctional environments in any organization, but the problem becomes amplified in law enforcement because of the nature of the work performed and the duties of law enforcement agencies and individual officers. Research on leadership in law enforcement personnel shows that leadership is shaped by these factors, which affect the psychological, and physical health of law enforcement personnel. Negative leadership can traumatize law enforcement officers and discourage the force's morale (More et al., 2003). If the morale of the force is low, then the efficacy of the organization will be depressed as well. Studying potential leadership can improve the efficacy of law enforcement organizations.

### **Statement of the Problem**

Law enforcement leadership is an important factor for the stability of the work environment and the resiliency of individual officers. Although all concerns reported by officers cannot be removed, any negative impact that is caused by or attributed to organizational efficiency can and should be mitigated. Supervisors and officers have different priorities when executing the responsibilities of their respective positions. Officers and supervisors also perceive organizational policies and procedures differently, which in turn leads them to expect different

styles of leadership (Engel & Worden, 2003). This can lead to disparate understandings between officers and leaders of the realities of each other's duties and responsibilities. What matters is how leaders cope with the expectations and realities of their officers. It is assumed that certain personal characteristics lead to more functional problem-solving skills than others. Without an understanding of these characteristics, it will be difficult or impossible to successfully identify possible future leaders who could lead their organization effectively. Without strong leadership, organizations cease to function effectively. Given the dangerous and unpredictable nature of working in law enforcement, it is especially important that these agencies avoid dysfunction at both the leadership and rank-and-file levels.

### **Significance of the Problem**

The professional duties of people in public service are require them to assist community members in need. The nature of law enforcement differentiates it from workers in other helping industries who attend to the public's need. Law enforcement officers must make immediate decisions concerning the circumstances before them that may be completely unfamiliar to them, and do so with often very little information or context. Law enforcement jobs impose occupational stress, which can have serious consequences for both the affected officers and those who are in proximity to them (Conger & Fulmer, 2003). As law enforcement officers regularly are required to rapidly make potentially life and death decisions as a matter of course, the presence of any negative perception can influence their judgment.

Leaders in law enforcement strive to improve the quality of the organizational culture and facilitate an environment in which officers are motivated to accomplish their duties. The leadership style found within an organization can have a significant effect on organizational effectiveness and on the satisfaction employees take in their participation with the organization.



Organizational leadership styles used within law enforcement settings may not be conducive to addressing different issues or minimizing concerns raised by the officers.

There are significant findings that may be used to facilitate an understanding of the impact and influences of potential leadership in law enforcement, and, encourage administrators to cultivate leadership strategies that improve the efficiency of the law enforcement agencies in the United States. By clarifying how law enforcement officers and their supervisors perceive leadership, areas in which flaws are found can be targeted and practices can be implemented that will prevent any deficiency as well as help officers and supervisors manage problems when they do occur. Leaders in law enforcement can apply this information not only to improve leadership strategies but also to reduce concerns reported by officers (Johnson & Klee, 2007).

In order to address these concerns, however, those in leadership positions must have certain characteristics that are conducive to unity and cohesion within the organizations. Identifying individuals who display and possess these characteristics before being placed in leadership roles allows organizations to elevate individuals, those individuals with positive qualities to leadership positions. This mitigates avoidable and dangerous practices that would otherwise place incompetent individuals into leadership positions.

### **Statement of the Purpose**

Law enforcement executive management has sought to develop leadership styles and potential leadership to improve organizational climate. Recent findings suggest that law enforcement officers still perceive their supervisors as a significant source of inspiration. The guidance that supportive supervisors and others in the chain of command can provide the rank-and-file was recognized as one of the most effective ways to improve resilience and develop leadership qualities among officers (Behn, 2003).

Supervisors acknowledge that though their support helps reduce negativity in their subordinates and promotes resiliency among officers, they are often reluctant to engage with officers. The differences in perceptions of responsibilities between officers and supervisors may be the cause of this reluctance. While both officers and supervisors are aware that there are different roles, they are likely to recognize distinctive leadership roles or attach different values to the same role (Bannish & Ruiz, 2003).

As officers' and their supervisors' priorities differ, it is likely that they will experience different working conditions as a result. Officers and the supervisors who oversee them are not likely to perceive organizational policies in the same manner, which could affect their professional relationships. If the causes of this disconnect are recognized, then changes can be made to improve efficiency of law enforcement officers and organizations. However, determining which factors of leadership directly influence officers is only part of the problem (Conger & Fulmer, 2003).

The second aspect was determining how law enforcement officers and their supervisors perceive these factors in respect to their own duties and how they carry out their duties to protect the communities that they serve. Since police officers and their supervisors have different duties, it may not be possible to address all issues caused by their differing professional obligations. However, officers and supervisors of the rationale should be briefed on the rationale behind departmental policies as well as facets of law enforcement culture, and leaders should mitigate possible negative perceptions about leadership from law enforcement officers. The goal of this study was to provide information to promote positive relationships between officers and their supervisors so that they may contribute to overall organizational effectiveness of law enforcement agencies.

The purpose of this qualitative, descriptive study was to identify the indicators of high leadership potential in United States law enforcement. The qualitative research method was determined to be appropriate to demonstrate the indicators of high potential leadership in US law enforcement, which a quantitative study could not approximate (Irving, 2004).

### **Research Questions**

For this qualitative research study, specific parameters for data collection were established prior to conducting the research. The research questions were a significant element of this process, as these questions impose strict limitations for the researcher regarding assembling the research. This research project focused on the primary research questions regarding indicators of potential leadership in US law enforcement (Miller, 2005).

The following key questions and assessments were addressed through this study:

- What personality characteristics are essential to the success of future law enforcement leaders?
- What are the existing gaps and shortcomings in terms of knowledge, skills and abilities, if any, among law enforcement officials in light of public sentiment today?
- How do we develop a plan for dealing with the difference?

### **Research Method Appropriateness**

Studies' research methods must be chosen based on the type of information to be gathered and analyzed throughout the course of the study. Qualitative research is a means for helps researchers understand the values assigned to sociological problems (Creswell, 2007). In contrast, quantitative research allows researchers to test previously conceived theories objectively to study and understand what relationships may exist between the variables of a problem (Creswell 2009); both are useful methods for researchers to assess human perceptions.

Mixed-method research studies come in a variety of applications, and are typically used to complement aspects of the other method that do not sufficiently address the research questions or the problem. Qualitative research is a non-experimental design used to examine the state of a subject or problem at a single point in time. This research study examined the indicators of potential leadership in United States law enforcement. Based on the expectations and parameters of this study, a qualitative research design was used to conduct the study.

### **Theoretical Framework**

Background research suggests that the factors that contribute in positive and negative ways to the development of effective leadership characteristics of law enforcement officers can be improved through the policies put in place by administrative personnel. Application of management strategies that directly target the leadership style could potentially improve the organizational culture for law enforcement officers currently active in law enforcement settings (Ames & Flynn, 2007).

Management strategies concentrate on the synergy of functionality (e.g., the completion of job-specific tasks) to create working conditions that are conducive to the employee efficacy. This is true in any field or sector. However, what makes law enforcement agencies unique is that they can be driven by different goals than those found in other professions because of potential life-and-death situations that their employees frequently face; yet, the organizational culture found within these agencies can be influenced and changed just as in all other professions. It is obvious that the type of organizational culture that managers cultivate and preserve directly affects, for better and for worse, the attitude and performance of officers within it. All personnel can affect the organizational culture, but because leaders maintain a well-defined and ranked position in the chain of command within this setting, they are better able to inspire or direct

change within the culture (Goleman, 2004). Effective change leaves a positive impact on the efficiency and functionality of organizations.

The following chapter will explore the literature on the role of leadership in organizational cultures and the impact it has on potential leadership within law enforcement agencies. The chapter will illustrate the issues explored in this study and will clarify the convoluted nature of leadership, decisions that law enforcement administrators make, and obligations of law enforcement leadership.

### **Key Definitions**

The following terms were used in this research study:

**Collaboration.** Efforts taken by members of an organization to work together on a single project or to act in unison regarding some aspect of the enterprise's strategy; teamwork.

In the context of the study, collaboration refers to the work relationship formed by administrators and law enforcement officers within the work environment.

**Law enforcement.** The process of enforcing the formal policies established by legal and communal codes within a designated territory or area.

**Law enforcement administrator.** A professional hired to oversee employees in the law enforcement setting and to manage the administrative duties relating to the employees.

**Law enforcement officer.** A professional hired for the purposes of enacting law enforcement. In the context of the study, the term applies to law enforcement officers in a general sense and, when specified, to those persons in administrative positions at any Police Department.

**Leadership.** Efforts taken to guide an organization and its personnel to accomplish specific goals through the purposeful cultivation of interpersonal relationships between

persons in leadership positions and persons in the position of followers. In the context of the study, the term applies to efforts taken to promote collaborative team building and goal achievement in law enforcement.

**Management.** The process of imposing “control over others’ behaviors and actions” includes interpersonal relations, decision-making, team-building, and organizational duties including planning, budgeting and directing. In the context of the study, the term applies to efforts taken to direct policy and procedure in law enforcement.

### **Key Assumptions**

Assumptions in research are introduced to address weaknesses that may be may arise when a researcher does not critically examine the factual basis for determinations they make regarding the ideas that underpin the research. Ensuring that the research study focuses on indicators of potential leadership in U.S. law enforcement the following assumptions were made:

- The law enforcement agencies may request a copy of the results of this research project,
- The law enforcement agencies were assumed to be active and supportive parties to the research project,
- Law enforcement organizational hierarchical, duties, and experiences vary from agency to agency and state to state within the United States;

Despite these discrepancies, the researcher was able to generalize the results of this research project.

### **Limitations of the study**

Limitations are potential weaknesses of the study that the researcher. The current study was limited to law enforcement agencies within the Los Angeles area, and experience of the

author as a U.S. Trainer and Mentor for Afghanistan National Police (ANP). Resource limitations also included limited time and data gathering restrictions for this project.

### **Delimitations**

Delimitations are parameters set by the researcher regarding what information should be included, what should be left out, and how the researcher made these decisions. For this research project, the point of commonality between the subjects of the study was the work environment and the organizational culture found in all law enforcement agencies. Based on existing literature that outlines which leadership strategies appear to be most common among law enforcement agencies, it is accepted that the results of this study could be broadly applied to the law enforcement community across the United States. The results of the study also were generalized to apply to different types of law enforcement agencies, due to the universal similarities across various agencies. Ideally, this means that the results would apply to local police departments, county sheriff departments, state law enforcement agencies, and federal agencies. Examples of these similarities include the requirement that employees must work within a structured bureaucratic environment in order to uphold the law, and that all officers must make rapid decisions based on their immediate circumstances that may have lasting repercussions for both law breakers and the community the officers are sworn to serve and protect. The organizational culture of law enforcement affects the communities these agencies serve.

### **Summary**

This chapter introduced the critical role that leadership plays in the daily functioning of law enforcement agencies. To emphasize the importance of this role, the distinct qualities of the law enforcement profession were discussed as a backdrop to the larger discussion on leadership.

Leadership and its effects on individual morale and organizational efficacy were discussed and as a result, the problem that law enforcement agencies face when there is a lack of strong leadership was deliberated. The purpose of this study was to identify characteristics of leaders that improve and encourage functionality in organizations so that they may achieve their missions. There were three research questions that drove the study, which were carried out using personal interviews and questionnaires according to the Sequential Mixed Methods Exploratory Design process. Key terms were defined for clarity and homogeneity.



## **Chapter 2: Review of the Literature**

### **Introduction**

Chapter two reviews the literature and will discuss theories of leadership, the historical background of effective leadership and recent findings related to executive selections, including traditional ways of selecting leaders. Characteristics and professional background of current leaders and challenging issues that are facing future leaders in law enforcement will also be reviewed as will specific competencies required of law enforcement leaders. Next the effectiveness of executive selections will be discussed, that will be followed by an examination of how climate surveys can be used as an important tools for selecting future leaders. Lastly, Chapter two will explore recommendations for selecting effective leaders in law enforcement agencies.

### **Leadership**

A review of the literature reveals concerns regarding leadership in law enforcement. The law enforcement profession experiences a higher-than-normal rate of attrition, which affects leadership selection in various ways (Van Maanen, 1975). Understanding the components and the types or style of leadership can help mitigate the challenges of leading a law enforcement organization.

Leadership is a loosely defined concept whose meaning changes on the context in which it was used. As a result, there is little universal consensus as to what leadership is and what constitutes good leadership. Utilizing a Google search of “ leadership definitions” will yield more than 22 million results. In order to provide a clearer understanding of the concept of leadership, this chapter will provide a significant background of “leadership perspectives and models that can be identified as progressive and effective for both personal and organizational

success” (Haber, 2010, p. 312). It is important to discuss and understand the characteristics that are common to leaders in all fields and professions.

**Understandings of leadership.** Colloquially, the word leadership is used in a variety of ways, resulting in multiple understandings of the word depending on the context or the assumptions made (Stogdill, 1948). To begin, one must distinguish the difference between the meanings of leader and leadership, which often used interchangeably. A leader is a person who occupies a position, while leadership is an activity that a person engages in. While leaders can engage in leadership, some leaders do not always participate in leadership. Additionally, a person does not need to officially hold the title of leader (such as supervisor) in an organization to engage in leadership (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). Acknowledging the common misconception that only a leader who holds an official title can participate in leadership is important, especially because people who do not hold official leadership positions can be active participants in the leadership process, and most importantly, can have a positive impact on the organization and their peers (Goleman et al., 2002).

In this chapter, leadership is presented as an activity, or something someone does. While there is also a focus on leadership as a capacity, or a quality someone has, these skills and capacities are not important if one does not put them to use. This means that what someone does is more important than what someone is capable of doing. To effectively engage in leadership, one must develop a range of leadership skills and capacities (Stogdill, 1948).

**Leadership and management.** Haber (2010) states that, “Scholars and practitioners spend a great deal of energy distinguishing between the concepts of leadership and management” (p. 313). Instead of focusing on what is different between the two concepts, one should examine how they complement each other and why it is necessary to the study of leadership to understand

why both are important. “Leadership and management both involve working with other people and striving to accomplish goals” (Haber, 2010, p. 313). The overall focus of time, goals, functions, and the nature of the relationship (between the leadership or manager and follower or subordinate) differ across the two concepts of leadership and management (Greenleaf, 2008).

While leadership and management are different concepts, the reality is that they go hand in hand. A long-term focus and sustainable organizational change (leadership) cannot happen without a parallel focus on short-term goals and completion of tasks (management). Without the function of staffing (management), there would be no people to align (leadership); in some situations, there is a need for control (management) and, in others, inspiration or motivation (leadership; Haber, 2010). Often, even within the same situation, someone may engage in planning (management) while he or she is providing direction (leadership; Haber, 2010). Management usually involves a “top-down” authoritative approach, while leadership is more based on influence of or between the members. Generally, “the leader influences the followers and the overall leadership process, and the followers also influence the leaders and the leadership process” (Haber, 2010, p. 313).

Though the distinction between management and leadership may appear to be chiasmic on paper, they overlap and even merge in practice (Haber, 2010). It is important to recognize that they complement one another and both are necessary for an organization to be successful; without leadership, an organization will become stagnant and imperiled, and without management an organization will not function, work will not get done, and people will not get paid (Greenleaf, 2008). Where management provides a practical foundation for an organization, leadership provides a philosophical foundation.

Leadership is important for professionals in any organization to understand and utilize. This chapter will discuss how leadership is a process that occurs in all levels and in all aspects of an organization. Any member of an organization can exercise and influence leadership in the organization and larger community from any level of the organization. An important aspect of leadership is fostering positive relationships between supervisors and subordinates. Cultivating positive relationships between leaders and those led improves the efficacy of organizations, which in turn allows them to carry out their missions and achieve their goals. As mentioned earlier, one does not have to be the CEO in order to practice leadership. “Anyone can engage in leadership through being a committed, engaged, and hard-working member of the organization who is in touch with and acts in line with the organizational purpose and values” (Haber, 2010, p. 312).

**Why leadership.** The above discussion presents a few different understandings of leadership. For the purpose of this chapter and research, leadership is understood as a process or activity in which people are mobilized to create positive change (Haber, 2010). This definition identifies leadership as a process or activity that people at all levels can participate or engage in, instead simply as a position or skill, and it involves creating change rather than maintaining the status quo (Stogdill, 1948).

So, why is understanding leadership so important? One can begin to understand this by examining this question on three levels: individual, group, and societal (Haber, 2010). On the individual level, developing someone’s leadership skills helps them “become a more effective person and group member who is able to think innovatively and initiate positive change” (Haber, 2010, p. 313). For groups, leadership is important for organizational sustainability and long-term success; leadership contributes to innovative thinking and new ways of operating and thriving in

an ever-changing and complex world (Yukl, 1989). For societies, leadership is needed for creating a better and more just world (Haber, 2010). These three contexts are interconnected. What happens on an individual level influences the group and societal levels; what happens on a group level influences individuals and society; lastly, leadership and change on a societal level influences individuals and groups (Rogers, 1991). Understanding the interconnected nature of the three levels can help leaders and their subordinates by encouraging the positive relationships necessary for an organization to function successfully. Leadership means that an individual tends to the needs of others over one's own needs; according to Haber (2010), its service-oriented nature lends it to creating positive change, which is needed for the sustainability of humanity.

**Leader-centric perspectives on leadership.** Looking back at how the study of leadership emerged can help explain how leadership is understood today. Leadership has traditionally and historically been understood as a leader-centric concept, meaning that it focuses on the role of leaders in terms of who they are and what they do (Aktouf, 1992).

**Historical perspectives.** Evidence suggests that scholars have studied and discussed the concept of leadership since the time of Aristotle (Haber, 2010). Other evidence points to the concepts of leadership, the leader and the follower existing in Egyptian hieroglyphics from more than 5,000 years ago (Bass, 1995). The study of leadership began with a focus on leaders and the first systematic studies focused on "great" (an obviously subjective term) leaders (Haber, 2010). These studies are referred to as "great man theories" or "trait theories because they explored and attempted to explain what characteristics lead to the greatness of the leaders studied (Northouse, 2007). These leaders were thought to be born with intrinsic characteristics that contributed to their success as great leaders (Rogers, 1991).

**Trait theories.** Trait theories suggest that leaders have certain innate characteristics that people who are not leaders lack, such as intelligence, determination, integrity, sociability, self-confidence, masculinity, and dominance (Haber, 2010). However, such theories are problematic for their ambiguity and inconsistency. Different studies resulted in identifying different traits because the studies were often quite subjective as to what constituted good leaders or good leadership (Yukl, 1989).

Trait theories are also problematic because they cannot account for situational context; leadership success in one situation may be different from what it takes to be successful or great in another situation (Haber, 2010). Another shortcoming of trait theories is that they fail to consider the influence of nonleaders; different people might respond better to other styles or approaches (Haber, 2010). Ultimately, trait theories imply that leadership is a set disposition that cannot be learned or taught (Haber, 2010). The belief that leaders are born with innate characteristics and that leadership skills cannot be developed, learned, or taught is commonly recognized as a leadership myth (Schein, 1992).

**Studies of leadership skills.** From the study of traits came the subsequent study of leadership skills, or the capabilities of a leader that can be learned and developed over time. Studies also emerged on the leadership behaviors and styles that are actually practiced and demonstrated by a leader. These studies sought to identify the best way to lead, and took into consideration the people being led. Still, these leadership perspectives focused almost entirely on the leader and his or her actions without consideration for situational context and with relatively little consideration for the other people in the group organization (beyond recognition that a leader engages in a behavior that may impact another person). Situational and contingency approaches to leadership were introduced as a new perspective on leadership, which takes into

consideration the situation and the people in the organization when determining how a leader should lead (Conger, 1990).

The leader-centric nature of these different leadership perspectives is clear; these perspectives contend that leadership is either (a) who a leader is (traits), (b) what a leader is capable of doing (skills), or (c) what a leader does (behavior, style, situational context). While these different aspects may be helpful in understanding what are believed to be important qualities, capacities, and behaviors of a leader, the perspectives on leadership are very limited in that they do not take into consideration the complexity of situations in which they operate nor the vast potential of the other people in the group. The next section focuses on progressive leadership models, which are those models that challenge these leader-centric perspectives on leadership and emphasize a more relational and systemic view of leadership (Schein, 1992).

**Integrating different leadership perspectives.** This section will include a number of different leadership perspectives that address leadership from different angles and with different lenses, assumptions, and priorities. Rather than prescribe one leadership perspective, it may be more helpful to identify strengths from each perspective and seek to integrate them into an understanding of leadership that pulls from the different models and perspectives and creates an approach that makes sense for individual organizations (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991).

Leadership is about more than just a leader's actions or words; effective leadership can be viewed through the framework of knowing, being, and doing (Haber, 2010). Knowing involves the knowledge one has whereas "being encompasses the values, beliefs, attitudes, and awareness one possesses" (Haber, 2010, p. 319). "Being" includes actions, behaviors, and skills (Haber, 2010). Effective leadership will utilize each of these three components, which are interconnected (Haber, 2010). "Developing as a leader also means developing as a person through becoming

more knowledgeable about oneself, others, and leadership concepts, through identifying and solidifying one's values, beliefs, and commitments, and through developing different skills and capacities" (Haber, 2010, p. 319).

**Progressive leadership perspectives.** Progressive leadership is used in this chapter to describe leadership perspectives that challenge the traditional, leader-centric conceptions of leadership, and the definition draws heavily from Haber's (2010) definition. Progressive leadership is defined by the following characteristics:

- Leadership that is an action or process, not a person or a position
- Leadership that is relational, with a focus on building relationships and collaboration
- Leadership where the intention to create a positive change in something beyond oneself
- Leadership that has a moral and ethical dimension (Haber, 2010).
- Leadership that involves the interconnected levels of individual, group, and society

Progressive leadership emphasizes the idea that real, significant, and sustainable change can take place with organizations thriving (Haber, 2010). In addition, these progressive leadership approaches increase the individuals' leadership capacity and ability to mobilize change (Palmer, 1994).

The models of this chapter reflect many of the characteristics of progressive leadership identified above. Two foundations of progressive leadership are discussed below. They vary from the perspective presented above, but are equally useful for leadership practice.



**Foundations of progressive leadership.** Burns introduced the concept of transforming leadership (Haber, 2010). This leadership approach “stresses the mutual, reciprocal relationship between a leader and followers, whereby the motivation and the morality of both the leader and the followers are raised to higher levels” (Haber, 2010, p. 315). Understanding the reciprocal nature of this relationship can cultivate potential in both the leader and the led. This is one foundation of modern progressive leadership. Another foundation for progressive leadership is transactional leadership, which is “a relationship based on a transaction or exchange between a leader and follower, such as giving a raise for meeting certain performance standards” (Haber, 2010, p. 315). This paradigm of leadership played a significant role in shaping future leadership models. Burns’ work encouraged “leadership scholars and practitioners to look beyond the role of the leader alone and instead focus on the reciprocal relationship between leader and follower. He also introduced morals and ethics into the leadership conversation” (Haber, 2010, p. 315).

Rost (1991), created the theory of postindustrial leadership, which encouraged scholars and practitioners to reshape their conceptions of leadership. He referred to leader-centric perspectives of leadership “industrial perspectives,” and began to push for new conceptions of leadership that kept up with the growing complexity of the world and shifts in values that took place in industry as well as society (Haber, 2010). This leadership concept stresses the mutual relationship of influence between leader and followers and the importance of followers being active players in the leadership process, striving for a substantive and transforming change that is mutually agreed on and reflective of a shared purpose (Haber, 2010). Burns’s (1978) transforming leadership and Rost’s postindustrial leadership worked together to create foundations for new ways of viewing leadership that turned the study of leadership away from a

leader-centric focus and instead encouraged focus on the potential for a significant, transforming impact (Haber, 2010).

**Servant leadership.** The perspective of servant leadership focuses on the servant role of a leader. According to this perspective, leaders start out with a desire to serve others or a greater purpose, which then transforms into a desire to lead, which “results in a servant leader who is committed to serving something beyond him- or herself” (Cilente, 2009). Ideally, the people being served benefit, grow, and become more motivated and likely, in turn, they serve others (Cilente, 2009).

Though acting as a servant at all times is not necessarily the aim of leadership, the servant leadership perspective is not to be discounted. It stresses the importance of a leader’s focus on something greater than their narrow interests, whether it is the well-being of others or the purpose of an organization (Haber, 2010). Servant leaders, therefore, consider the needs of others before they consider their own, and seek to improve the people around them. Servant leadership indicates that leaders should “be in tune with their followers through listening to them, exercising empathy, nurturing their growth and working to build community” (Haber, 2010). The leader-follower relationship is important in this perspective, which suggests that the relationship should be based on ethics care and concern (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Cultivating servant leadership can help organizations that are mission-centered and seek to improve individuals and society by serving others. This style of leadership emphasizes the social responsibility that leaders have to serve the less fortunate (Haber, 2010). In an organizational context, servant leaders are concerned with all members of the organization, regardless of role or status; no one should be recognized as more or less important than anyone else (Haber, 2010).

**Followership.** Followership is a different way of looking at leadership that recognizes the crucial role that followers play in the leadership process. While the focus is often solely on the leader of an organization, the reality is that the followers, or members of an organization, play a significant role in whether or not an organization collapses or flourishes. An organization needs effective leaders and followers, as they are both significant and important parts of the leadership process. It is helpful to understand that the role of a leader and follower shift in different contexts; even within the same organization, someone may be a leader in one committee and a member without a leadership title in another. What matters is that the person remains effective and committed both as a leader and a follower. Kelly (1995) discussed the qualities that make a follower effective:

- Manage themselves well
- Are committed to their organization and its purpose
- Work hard and perform at high levels
- Demonstrate courage, honesty, and credibility

These qualities sound a lot like what might be expected of effective leaders, and that is exactly the point; leaders and followers should demonstrate the same commitments, abilities and skills (Haber, 2010). Through the perspective of followership, being a follower is not thoughtlessly and blindly complying with the whims of a leader; it involves being an active, engaged and committed member who can think critically (Haber, 2010). Followership stresses the importance of leaders and followers in the organization's success. In addition, followership is an empowering perspective that encourages people from any level in a group to be an engaged participant in the leadership process (Raskin & Hall, 1979).

**Relational leadership model.** Relational leadership describes leadership as a process that comprises many people collaborating to incite change in an organization. Relationships are the key to relationship leadership. This model includes five components: purpose, inclusive, empowering, ethical and process (Katz, 1974).

- Purpose drives this model; it requires the group to identify a common goal or vision and being committed to work toward this common purpose. In addition, purpose involves creating a positive difference (Haber, 2010).
- Inclusive involves embracing and being conscious of all possible types of diversity in a group, such as opinions, personal characteristics, and styles. Inclusive also means including a variety of people in the leadership process and working to develop the skills and capacity of group members (Haber, 2010).
- Empowering recognizes shared power in a group. Group members take initiative to become involved in the group process and are supported in doing so through the creation of an environment that promotes involvement and ownership (Haber, 2010).
- Ethical identifies the importance of behaving in ways that reflect the values of the both the individual and the group to foster positivity that serves something beyond one's own goals or interests (Haber, 2010).
- Process encompasses each of the other components of the model, focusing the steps that the group takes to work together. This involves how a group functions and makes decisions when working toward its purpose. The group should be aware of its process and act intentionally (Haber, 2010).

The relational leadership model focuses on group processes, which counters traditional leadership models that focus on either just the outcomes of cooperation and leadership or solely

on the leader him- or herself. Unlike other models, “this model does not even distinguish between the roles of leader or follower; everyone is part of the group leadership process and plays important roles, which may shift depending on the activity or point in the process” (Haber, 2010). As a result, this model is especially useful in situations of group leadership (Katz, 1974).

**Social change model.** The social change model of leadership shares some of the same assumptions about leadership as the relational leadership model (Haber, 2010). Like relationship leadership, this model stresses the role of the group in leadership as well as the importance of the leadership process itself. Values and positive change create the core of the relationship leadership model. Its goal is change; more specifically, it promotes positive changes in greater society. There are eight key values that can be described in behavioral terms (Heifetz, Grashow, & Linksy, 2009). This model also emphasizes the individual, group, and societal levels. The individual dimension considers the individual’s role and commitments in the leadership process, stressing that one must engage on self-improvement in order to contribute to both the group and leadership (Haber, 2010). The three values associated with this dimension of the model are: consciousness of self, congruence and commitment (Haber, 2010). The group dimension emphasizes how people works together in a group setting and behave in a manner that furthers the goals and purpose of the group (Haber, 2010). The values associated with this dimension of the model include: collaboration, common purpose and controversy with civility (Haber, 2010). Last, the societal dimension of the model recognizes that people belong to various communities and emphasizes that they should actively strive to work toward creating a positive difference in the communities or societies that they inhabit (Haber 2010).

None of these dimensions exists in a vacuum; each interacts and influences the other (Haber, 2010). Individuals can and should “be aware of who they are, commit to their

responsibilities and act in line with their values influence the group's ability to function and influence the larger community" (Haber, 2010, p. 316). Just as the individual's inner attitudes influence the group and its outcomes, the group influences an individual's self-development (Goleman et al., 2002).

The social change model can help researchers and leaders recognize the importance of the individual, group, and society to create positive changes at all levels (Haber, 2010). It also prescribes "values that can guide a successful process of leadership resulting in more effective and self-aware individuals, higher functioning groups and thriving communities" (Haber, 2010, p. 316). It is also an empowering model, like the relational leadership model, "that recognizes the importance of every member of a leadership process, regardless of position" (Greenleaf, 2002).

Emotional intelligence "stresses the importance of awareness of oneself and others in the leadership relationship" (Haber, 2010, p. 318). Human aspects such as EI cannot be removed from the leadership process because organizations are made up solely of and by people (Haber, 2010). One cannot create change without inspiring, mobilizing, and being able to work with others (Haber, 2010). Emotional intelligence in leadership is vital to one's own self-awareness and leadership effectiveness, to developing and maintaining meaningful relationships with others and to organizational success (Heifetz, Grashow, & Linsky, 2009).

**Adaptive leadership.** Adaptive leadership is considered, like many progressive leadership models, an action or process rather than a trait or skill (Haber, 2010). Heifetz, et al. (2009) describe adaptive leadership as "the practice of mobilizing people to tackle tough challenges and thrive." In this case, the verb "thrive" seeks to "portray the process by which an organism successfully adapts to changing conditions", and is applied to organizations as a metaphor for the adaptation process that exists in nature (Haber, 2010, p. 318). Organizations

exist as a part of the global environment, and like living organisms, they must adapt to environmental changes, or they will not continue to survive (Haber, 2010). Numerous organizations have failed to adapt and survive due to changes, such as economic downturns, in the system they inhabit (Schein, 1992).

Adaptive leadership helps leaders and scholars of leadership recognize how much of ourselves we must bring to the leadership process; “to engage in adaptive leadership, we must be in touch with ways of being and acting, and assessing how these beliefs and patterns serve or detract from what we are trying to accomplish” (Haber, 2010, p. 319). Adaptive leadership also requires organizational members to act as engaged participants who have the ability to mobilize others in this leadership process (Haber, 2010). Heifetz et al. (2009) provide a number of tasks that facilitate adaptive leadership.

**Leadership Challenges.** Organizations and their leaders face a number of challenges; Heifetz et al. (2009) distinguish between technical and adaptive challenges. Technical challenges are problems that are easily seen and understood; the problem and the remedy are clear to members and leaders. On the other hand, adaptive challenges are not as easily seen or understood, have not been faced before, and do not have clear answers; they must be addressed by viewing things in new ways, adopting new beliefs and experimenting with new behaviors (Haber, 2010). Understanding these two concepts can help leaders and organizations avoid common pitfalls. As people are often resistant to change and look for quick fixes to problems, they may respond to adaptive challenges with technical solutions, which does not address or correct the problems their organization faces and may exacerbate the issues (Yukl, 1989).

For example, the adaptive challenge of having a younger generation of employees entering the workforce who are more community-oriented and technologically savvy could be

approached by several distinct methods. A technical response would be to continue to run the organization as it has always been run, trying to assimilate the different generation of employees into the existing organizational culture (Lord, De Vader, & Alliger, 2001). In contrast, an adaptive response may include an examination of how the current organizational structure may support or hold back employees' creativity and potential. Another adaptive response would be to recognize that organizational structures may need to change, or the ways in which decisions are made may need to be altered and organizational norms may need to be shifted (Haber, 2010).

An adaptive response requires organization members or leaders to adjust the culture or values of the organization, and may require a greater amount of energy (Haber, 2010). It is likely to result in a shifting organization that will better support the new employees, allowing their expertise and talents to be used in a way that helps the organization thrive (Haber, 2010). In contrast, a technical response could stifle creativity and potential, leading to lower employee retention and a gradual deterioration of the organization as it fails to adapt to the shifts taking place around it (Haber, 2010). These concepts ring true even on the individual level. Individual adaptive challenges, such as starting a new job, responding to feedback on an evaluation, or changes in the goals and resources of a job, require adaptive leadership skills; "resorting to technical responses can result in short-term outcomes that ultimately fail to address the issue or perhaps even making it worse" (Haber, 2010, p. 319).

**Characteristics important to leaders.** There are certain individual characteristics of leadership that translate across different disciplines and situations. The qualities and skills of leaders in law enforcement are not unique to that occupation; they display attitudes, oversee subordinates, experience biases and maintain responsibilities, just as leaders in other occupations do. One aspect of law enforcement that is unique, however, is the danger and



resulting stress that both officers and leaders experience on the job. Law enforcement is also unpredictable; no two days at work are the same for both officers and their supervisors. The danger involved in this occupation means that it sometimes attracts people who exhibit characteristics of the darker side of human nature and therefore the darker side of leadership.

People are attracted to leadership positions for a variety of reasons. While many people pursue leadership positions because they have a vision to improve their organizations, not all driving forces behind leaders are positive. Some people are drawn to leadership because of the power that such positions grant to the holder, others are drawn to the risk or stress of such positions and still others find the notoriety of a high-profile position alluring. For example, McIntosh and Rima (1997) found that the development of a dark side in religious leaders occurs naturally due to inner urges and compulsions that often go unexamined.

### **Approaches**

Political psychologists have developed strategies for studying the personalities that can be applied to studying law enforcement leaders. These approaches may be distinguished along two contrasting schemes. First, single case studies concentrate on a single political leader, while multiple case studies include a large sample of political leaders (Simonton, 2010). Second, it possible to execute either qualitative or quantitative assessments of leadership personalities (Simonton, 2010). In theory, then, there are four different kinds of investigation for leadership personalities: (a) qualitative single case, (b) quantitative single case, (c) qualitative multiple cases, and (d) quantitative multiple cases (Simonton, 2010). The research literature includes studies that are done in all four types. Most research in this field as been conducted as either qualitative single case and quantitative multiple case studies (Simonton, 2010). Qualitative single

cases are considered psychobiographies, and quantitative multiple case studies are considered historiometries (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

**Psychobiography.** The first personality studies of leaders conducted applied qualitative analyses to single cases (Simonton, 2010). Psychoanalysts conducted these early investigations, and most of these inquiries are classed as psychobiographies (Simonton, 2010). Sigmund Freud was among the first psychoanalysts to do so, publishing one study on the biblical figure Moses and another on U.S. President Woodrow Wilson. Erik Erikson contributed psychobiographical studies of Martin Luther and Mahatma Gandhi. Most heads of state, whether famous or infamous, have been the subjects of psychobiographical analyses. These assessments, like all others, are imperfect. Researchers must carry out a clinical evaluation from archival material, speeches, correspondence, biographical records and historical chronologies (Simonton, 2010). These types of sources may be unable to reveal the same information that one could glean from a face-to-face interview, which is often not possible because the subject is deceased or otherwise unavailable (Cilente, 2009). Furthermore, too often the psychobiographer appears to be preoccupied with establishing the fact that a given leader suffered from serious mental illness, which can influence the outcome of the study (Simonton, 2010). This is why psychobiographies are sometimes instead seen as “psychopathographies” (Simonton, 2010) Finally, psychobiographers are not interested in assessing the personality characteristics that their subjects possess which makes them effective leaders. Instead, they usually seek to “explain some unique feature of a leader’s personality, such as why Great Britain’s King George III went mad or why President Woodrow Wilson failed to secure passage of the treaty establishing the League of Nations” (Simonton, 2010). Because of these characteristics, psychobiographies are better

suited to explain what sets a leader apart rather than discern general characteristics that sustain leaders.

**Historiometry.** Historiometries tend to be better at helping researchers identify general laws than psychobiographies. In part, this is because these studies use an appropriately large and representative sample of top political leaders so that conclusions can be drawn from the data using statistical analysis (Simonton, 2010). A representative sample will contain an “unbiased collection of leaders,” (Simonton, 2010) if it contains an unbiased collection of leaders; for example, one way to satisfy this requirement is to sample all leaders who have occupied a leadership position, such as all forty four U.S. presidents (Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2006).

Once the sample is determined, the researcher uses quantitative assessments to evaluate each leader using “personality and leadership variables that yield numerical scores that can then be analyzed using statistical software” (Simonton, 2010). These quantitative multiple case studies are no different from other research on the relationship between personality and leadership except that they, like psychobiography, must rely on raw, unevaluated information (Simonton, 2010). This information, however, is difficult to collect. For example, it is unlikely that contemporary law enforcement leaders will volunteer to take a battery of tests and inventories to assess their leadership skills. Not only may they simply be too busy to contribute time and effort to such a study, but also they may worry that such research may reveal facets of their personality that they would remain a secret. All of these factors make it difficult to collect information about leadership at all levels. The researcher must also make decisions about what time of assessment to employ once the data is collected. Three common ways for researchers to assess data are content analyses, biographical assessments and expert surveys (Bass, 1995).

**Content analyses.** Law enforcement leaders remain in the public eye, often engaged in press conferences, interviews and debates. Although speechwriters often write the formal addresses, researchers can safely assume that leaders hire writers who are able to represent their views accurately, or will make changes to a drafted speech when they feel necessary. In fact, research has indicated that there is a correlation between what leaders say in the public eye and what their private behaviors or correspondence indicates (Simonton, 2010). As a result, it is possible to use their public speeches to draw conclusions on their personality traits and leadership qualities (Simonton, 2010). All a researcher has to do is devise a coding scheme that will infer psychological attributes from the text or transcript of any verbal communication (Simonton, 2010). Researchers can draw their coding schemes from ones that already exist, but they may also devise their own for that particular research set (Goleman et al., 2002).

**Coding schemes devised specifically for content analysis.** The researcher must first discern a variable to explore, and then come up with a means of extracting that assessment from available documentary materials (Simonton, 2010). When assessing leadership qualities, this can be done by creating a dictionary of words that can indicate the characteristics that the researcher wishes to examine. Then, using the dictionary, the researcher can simply count the number of times a word appears in a given sample of text. The dictionary does not need to be excessively complicated; it may, for example, involve counting the number of times the speaker says “not,” or perhaps the number of absolute terms such “always,” “never,” “totally,” or “strictly” (Simonton, 2010).

Although such coding schemes have the ability to reveal much about the personality-leadership relation in law enforcement, they also have shortcomings; they do not have a standardized baseline for comparison, which means that the leaders cannot be compared to the

general population, which would likely have substantially less or weaker leadership skills and characteristics (Simonton, 2010). The next type of analytical method is able to deal better with this shortcoming.

**Coding schemes adapted from standard psychometric instruments.** The field of psychology has created a number of instruments capable of assess personality variables (Simonton, 2010). Some of these instruments translate well into content analytical schemes. One of these instruments is Thematic Apperception Test, or TAT; originally conceived as a projective measure applied to stories written about ambiguous visual stimuli, the method has since been modified into a coding scheme applicable to written text (Simonton, 2010). It was first applied to analyze the power, achievements, and affiliation motivations of U.S. presidents based on the text of their inaugural addresses (Simonton, 2010). Another tool available to investigators is the Paragraph Completion Test (PCT), which measures conceptual complexity in the general population (Simonton, 2010). With only minor adjustments, this instrument has been applied to both prepared and spontaneous speeches to assess leaders on integrative complexity, a closely related construct (Simonton, 2010). This coding scheme has been used with a great variety of political leaders, including law enforcement (Bass et al., 2003).

The advantage for these coding schemes is that they can compare leaders to the general population with regard to key personality variables. However, it is rare for the conversion to produce a method that can be applied by computer software. Instead, raters must be trained in applying the coding method, and at least two raters are used to analyze the content a set of documents (Simonton, 2010). This ends up reducing the sample size, which can skew the results (Schein, 1992).

**Biographical assessments.** Biographies are gold mines of information that researchers can use to assess a leader's personality and leadership. This practice is actually very old compared to its counterparts; the first such applications were published by Frederick A. Woods in 1906, Catharine Cox in 1926, and Edward L. Thorndike in 1936 and 1950 (Simonton, 2010). Biographical information can be categorized into specific behaviors and personality ascriptions. For the former, the biographer searches for information regarding concrete actions or achievements that can indicate characteristics of the leader's personality (Simonton, 2010). For example, one could infer openness to new experiences if a subject is involved in a variety of hobbies or recreations (Simonton, 2010). In the latter case, the biographer employs analysis, such as behavior analysis, based on observations made (Simonton, 2010). The biographer then can use his or her own judgment to discern patterns of behavior that can be ascribed to personality characteristics (Schein, 1992).

The next problem that the researcher faces will be how to best convert the biographical data into objective, quantitative scores (Simonton, 2010). One way to address this is to use multiple sources to create a personality sketch for each leader. Then, the sketches will be given to at least two other evaluators who are asked to rate each subject on some personality scale that has been created either by the researcher or is an already-established measure (Simonton, 2010). Then, these assessments are evaluated using statistical analysis to determine what is at the core of a leader's personality" (Aktouf, 1992).

**Expert surveys.** Leaders in top-level positions will often become the subject of scholarly exploration. For example, there are literally hundreds of scholars who can claim some measure of expertise on one or more U.S. presidents (Simonton, 2010). Certainly any scholar who has written a biography of a leader can be considered an expert on their subject. Researchers can use

these scholars to gather data for a leadership personality survey because they are considered experts. The following example comes from research conducted on the performance of U.S. presidents (Schein, 1992).

At first, the number of respondents for such studies was small, well under 100; however, later surveys have become much more ambitious, sometimes reaching several hundred historians and political scientists. The data allowed the researchers to recognize there was a consensus on the differential performance among U.S. presidents (Simonton, 2010). The methods are comparable to those used for more traditional measures, such as intelligence. Interestingly, the consensus gleaned from the research overcame any differences the respondents may have with respect to ideology, geography, age, profession, ethnicity, and gender (Simonton, 2010). As a case in point, Lincoln is almost universally acclaimed as a great president, whereas Warren G. Harding is almost invariably viewed as one of the worst (Lord et al., 2001).

Earlier surveys began by asking the respondents to rate president greatness on a global scale, but later surveys narrowed their assessments by asking narrower questions (Simonton, 2010). For example:

- One 1970 survey asked 571 historians for evaluations of presidents' general prestige, administration accomplishments, strength of action, presidential activeness, idealism versus practicality, flexibility and respondents' information (Simonton, 2010)
- A 1997 survey had 719 experts rate the presidents on leadership, accomplishment, political skill, appointments and character and integrity (Simonton, 2010)

These surveys were able to more narrowly assess presidential performance than previous assessments. However, in some instances the global ratings of earlier studies correlated with the

more narrow assessments of more recent studies (Simonton, 2010). According to Simonton (2010), in general, great presidents score high on general prestige, administration accomplishments, strength of action and presidential activeness as well as leadership, accomplishment, political skill and appointments. “It should be noted that idealism versus practicality, flexibility and character and integrity all have more ambivalent relations with overall performance rating” (Simonton, 2010, 635).

One weakness of these of these studies is that traits like idealism versus practicality, flexibility and character, and integrity are probably more broadly applied to personality than narrowly to leadership skills. Even more so, these are personality traits that occur with just as much frequency in the general public as they do in executive leaders (Simonton, 2010).

Other political psychologists have used expert surveys to study personality traits in U.S. presidents that are well established in research on standard, non-presidential populations (Conger, 1990). For example, Rubenzer and Faschingbauer (2004) assessed as many presidents as possible on the Big Five personality factors. These factors were: (a) openness to experience (i.e., wide interests, imaginative, intelligent, original, insightful, curious, sophisticated, artistic, clever, inventive, sharp-witted, ingenious, creative and wise); (b) extraversion (i.e., talkative, assertive, active, energetic, outgoing, outspoken, dominant, forceful, enthusiastic, sociable and adventurous); (c) agreeableness (i.e., sympathetic, kind, appreciative, affectionate, soft-hearted, warm, generous, trusting, helpful, forgiving, pleasant, good-natured, friendly, cooperative, gentle, unselfish, praising and sensitive); (d) conscientiousness (i.e., organized, thorough, planful, efficient, responsible, reliable, dependable, conscientious, self-disciplined, precise, practical, deliberate, painstaking and ambitious); and (e) neuroticism (tense, anxious, nervous, moody, worrying, touchy, fearful, high-strung, self-pitying, temperamental, unstable, despondent



and emotional). These five dimensions are as useful in describing leaders in high political positions as they are in characterizing the average person on the street (Rubenzer & Faschingbauer, 2004). These, once again, are all personality traits that are not unique to U.S. presidents or leaders in general, but instead can be found in abundance among the general population.

Though the expert survey method allows more flexibility in their assessments, they still yield results that are very similar to those of content analysis and biographical assessment. All three methods can be implemented to triangulate a leader's actual personal qualities (Simonton, 2010). Despite its usefulness, expert surveys are the least utilized of these three methods. This can be explained because "suitable experts are not always available or willing to participate in personality evaluations" (Simonton, 2010, p. 635). For instance, Rubenzer and Faschingbauer could not find suitable or willing experts for some presidents, and so could not evaluate nearly a fourth of the U.S. presidents (Lorinkas & Kulis, 1986).

**Discussion of leadership theories.** As the 21<sup>st</sup>-century world and its culture become more complex, the challenge of identifying effective leadership qualities for key roles in senior management has become increasingly important. How can we systematically identify and promote the very best people for leadership roles? How can we identify deficiencies in otherwise promising people so they can be given needed training and education to make them well-rounded and better prepared for leadership? (Lorinkas & Kulis, 1986)

To answer such questions, we have to know exactly what good leadership qualities are. In large, intricate, modern organizations, what specific components of leadership do effective managers and executives exhibit? What are the most essential elements of leadership, those crucial core characteristics that have come to be described as leadership competencies, an

enumeration of observable patterns of behavior exhibited by successful leaders? Competency models provide detailed information about what an organization finds are the critical factors for superior performance. The idea of identifying specific leadership competencies has been driven during the past 50 years by two factors: the need to identify the most promising people for law enforcement leadership and the need to target the most vital topics for training and educating people for effective leadership in law enforcement (Schein, 1992).

Competency models serve as criteria for both factors. An agreed-upon list of the most crucial competencies provides a set of criteria that can be used to select people for the upper echelons of senior management. These same competencies can be used to establish strategic priorities for executive education and training programs. In the absence of such a core competency model, both the tasks of identifying people with promise for formal leadership roles and devising executive education priorities are at the mercy of inconsistent and subjective whims (Lorinkas & Kulis, 1986).

**Evolving models of leadership competencies.** During the past few decades, university professors, research consultants, specialists at the U.S. Office of Personnel Management (OPM) and their counterparts in other countries, have developed evolving models of key leadership competencies for the law enforcement department. The OPM model is particularly influential because it is used to screen and promote people in the Senior Executive Service (SES), top managers in the U.S. federal government. The OPM model is also used to prioritize the goals of executive education and training for potential SES candidates as well as for those already in the SES. Moreover, the OPM conceptualization of core competencies has influenced the executive screening and executive development activities of many governments around the world (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982). Thus, this effort is an important and far-reaching one.

The competency movement also has been extremely influential in the personnel practices of many organizations and companies in the private sector. This review will focus on the movement's tremendous growth and impact in the public sector, and, how that growth has been fueled by the need to devise objective and predictive criteria to vet and promote the most capable people, and ascertain the most crucial areas for their advanced education and training for leadership roles (Raskin & Hall, 1979).

Although usage varies, leadership competencies are used broadly to refer to the underlying characteristics and their corresponding behaviors that are vital for effective leadership. In other words, an individual's capabilities can indicate how he or she will react when facing obstacles in the workplace. Thus, Richard Boyatzis, a notable authority in the field of leadership, defines a job competency as an underlying characteristic of a person that is causally related to effective performance in a job such as a motive, trait, and skill, aspect of one's self-image or social role, or a body of knowledge which he or she uses (Stogdill, 1998).

Competencies can be conceptualized at a generic level (transcending jobs) or as job specific (the special competencies needed for particular jobs in particular organizations). Typically, organizations want to know which competencies "make a difference," so they often focus on identifying "differentiating" competencies that distinguish superior performers from others. In practice, competencies are conceptualized in enough detail to go beyond a few sweeping generalizations but are not so narrowly defined as to itemize many hundreds of factors. Striking that balance between breadth and detail is subjective, but current approaches typically configure roughly 20 to 30 competencies (Lord et al., 2001).

This approach to competency models is considerably different from the sweeping descriptions of overarching leadership styles that have been a significant part of the literature on

leadership during the past century. The authors of that literature have advocated broad typologies of leadership styles, such as Max Weber's notions of charismatic or bureaucratic leadership or Lewin's, Lippitt's, and White's famous distinctions between autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire leadership (Raskin & Hall, 1979).

In contrast to these broad portraits of leadership styles, efforts to delineate precise leadership competencies generate a more detailed catalog of specific leadership behaviors (Hersey & Blanchard, 1995). Evaluating specific leadership competencies tends to be more microlevel than macrolevel, which is influenced by a larger conception of what it means to possess good leadership qualities, and the extent to which good leadership must also be good management.

Current approaches to leadership competencies actually embrace and merge many of the previous layers of thinking about preferred leadership and management styles: efficiency from the progressive and scientific management periods, administrative discretion from the New Deal period, concern with both accomplishing tasks and nurturing people as per Blake and Mouton, transforming leadership as delineated by Burns, to name a few (Raskin & Hall, 1979).

**Methods in developing competencies.** An appreciation of the current thinking regarding leadership competencies requires a review of how the efforts to describe essential competencies have evolved in tandem with the growth of the public sector in the United States, growing awareness of the need for improved executive education and the search for a reliable way to find people who will be the best senior managers and provide the best leadership in public service (Bennis & Narnus, 2001).

In the late 1950s, a widespread belief emerged that senior managers in government needed to obtain an executive education and training for the public sector to work better.

Previously, the state comptroller general had often refused to cover expenditures for administrative training because they were deemed unnecessary. However, in 1958, the Government Employees Training Act was enacted and the idea of “executive development” in the federal government began to be taken seriously, even though there was no accepted model of exactly what kind of executive ought to be “developed” (Lord et al., 2001).

Other avenues to develop executive leadership in the public sector arose shortly after. During that period, the Brookings Institution launched its Conference Program for Federal Executives and the American Society for Public Administration (ASPA) began sponsoring executive education programs in conjunction with several leading universities. In 1959, the U.S. Department of Agriculture Graduate School began providing management development programs for new executives who had no formal management training; other topics included human relations, communications, leadership and employee motivation as well as then-new management concepts such as the Blake and Mouton’s Managerial Grid. By the early 1960s, the U.S. Civil Service Commission had developed the “Institute on Executive Leadership,” which was a 5-day program covering three main subject areas: (a) the basic framework of the federal government—its founding concepts, ideals and traditions; (b) assumptions about human motivations and values—means of influence and the social forces that shape administrative decisions; and (c) the role of the bureaucracy in the maintenance of democratic values. In 1961, a high-level conference at Princeton University focused on university and government roles in career development for the public sector. A consensus that grew out of this era was that a “significant period” of university training at mid-career would be useful in renewing intellectual vigor and initiative (Yukl & Kanuk, 1979).

There are a wide variety of psychometric measures that can be used by researchers to assess human behavior (Simonton, 2010). Though some of these methods may not help researchers understanding what makes a leader outstanding, they provide a large inventory of candidate variables (Simonton, 2010). Researchers may find that “some of these variables may prove to be more powerful predictors of leadership than others, and certain personality variables may prove irrelevant altogether” (Simonton, 2010, p. 631). However, it is possible to weed out some of the more irrelevant characteristics so that researchers can focus on those factors that actually are useful to understanding leadership (Raskin & Hall, 1979).

As already observed, leadership in law enforcement can assume many forms and can attract varying personality types. For example, regarding political leaders, the personality traits most characteristic of democratic leaders may differ markedly from those of autocratic leaders (Simonton, 2010). Therefore, personality variables that predict performance for leaders who employ one leadership style might be significantly different from the characteristics of a leader who employs a different leadership style (Simonton, 2010). Despite, this, personality predictors should not be discounted as they can be generalized across the board (Mann, 1998).

**Positive characteristics.** A frequent question in the field of leadership study is, to what degree can we say that leaders are born rather than made? Psychologists have been debating the answer of the nature-nurture question for well over a century (Simonton, 2010). “Even so, once researchers assemble an inventory of personality predictors of leader performance, it becomes possible to combine this information with the heritability coefficients that have been calculated by behavior geneticists to produce a rough estimate of the genetic contribution” (Lord et al., 2001).

A researcher's belief about nature-versus-nurture may be influenced by his or her field of expertise. Personality researchers who study leadership tend to assume that it is a matter of finding the 'right person.' By comparison, social psychologists tend to assume that it is more a matter of being 'at the right place at the right time (Simonton, 2010). However, these two approaches do overlap. Leaders' skills may be affected both by their own personal characteristics as they are also shaped by environmental factors. If this is true, then researchers must examine to what degree these factors influence a person, and if that influence is equal or if one is more dominant (Simonton, 2010). It is also possible that that personality and contextual variables operate according to a multiplicative process (Simonton, 2010). Perhaps the answer to this question, then, is that in order for a leader to be effective, they must be the right person at the right time in the right place (Simonton, 2010). In addition, situational context influences how subjects' personalities help or hinder them in the real world (Simonton, 2010). In a different context, a positive personality trait might hinder a person's leadership abilities (Mann, 1998).

Researchers have attempted to identify and categorize personality characteristics and the leadership styles and outcomes that stem from them. To assist individuals and groups with a means for identifying and measuring leadership styles, Bass et al., (1990) developed the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Form 5X (MLQ5X). This instrument identifies three types of leaders: transactional, transformational and laissez-faire. The transactional leader views leadership as a task relationship supported by reward and punishment. The laissez-faire leader takes no leadership action at all, and, the transformational leader inspires and motivates. While the MLQ5X has been used extensively in leadership research, studies that identify a relationship between leadership style and the dark leader behaviors, such as narcissism, could not be found (Dearlove, 2003).

**Negative characteristics.** People are attracted to leadership positions for a variety of reasons. While many people pursue leadership positions because they have a vision to improve their organizations, not all driving forces behind leaders are positive. Some people are drawn to leadership because of the power that such positions grant to the holder, others are drawn to the risk or stress of such positions, and still others find the notoriety of a high-profile position alluring. For example, McIntosh and Rima (1997) found religious leaders often naturally develop a dark side due to inner urges and compulsions that often go unexamined.

A similar quantitative study by Johnson and Klee (2007) revealed that leadership style positively predicts passive-aggressive behavior. It is noteworthy to consider that passive-aggressive behavior is among the dark leader behaviors discussed in McIntosh and Rima's (1997) work.

To assist with identifying and measuring dark leader behaviors, McIntosh and Rima (1997) developed the Dark Side of Leadership Profile (DSLIP). This is a self-assessment instrument that would reveal dark side leader behaviors within religious leaders. This researcher believes that this instrument is suitable for use in the law enforcement profession as those who achieve senior positions within public service are confronted with the same challenges faced by those of the ministry. Providing support for this belief, McIntosh and Rima (1997) contend, "The dark side is indiscriminant when it comes to choosing its victims. Be they well-intentioned leaders or dictators" (p. 55). The DSLIP relies upon 60 questions in the full survey instrument, with 12 questions associated to each of the five dark leader behaviors: compulsive, narcissism, codependency, paranoia and passive-aggressive (Goleman et al., 2002).

These urges, when personalized by leaders, may result in poor decisions. McIntosh and Rima (1997) sought to clarify and provide identification and direction for five specific



behavioral types that may be associated with the development of the dark side of leadership, which includes negative personality traits such as compulsive, narcissistic, paranoid, codependent, and passive-aggressive. They contend that by engaging in self-reflection and self-analysis of these behaviors, leaders may become aware of these inner urges and driving forces, which helps them avoid the darker side of leadership, further impacting leader behaviors are leadership styles (Dearlove, 2003).

Understanding both positive and negative personality characteristics deepens our understanding of leadership. It allows those who select employees for leadership positions to distinguish between strong and weak candidates. It also helps them weigh characteristics against each other – if a candidate has a deficiency in one area or struggles with one of the more negative personality characteristics, it may be compensated for or balanced out by one or more positive characteristics. This is realistic because no person exhibits purely positive personality characteristics; people must strike the right balance for effective leadership.

### **Applications of Leadership Assessments**

Some organizations have taken proactive approaches to identifying and developing leadership skills in their current leaders. For example, the U.S. government's Office of Personal Management (OPM) offers leadership assessments to help leaders in other government agencies understand their leadership styles, strengths and weaknesses. The Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) administered a Climate Survey to all employees in 2014 to gauge employees' perceptions of FBI leadership. Both of these represent practical applications of the theories and components discussed above.

**OPM leadership assessment.** In order to assist leaders across the federal government, OPM designed a series of leadership assessments to help individuals identify areas of strength

and weakness in their own leadership skills. These assessments identify and emphasize several core executive competencies:

- Fundamental Competencies: interpersonal skills, written communication, oral communication, integrity and honesty, continued learning and public service motivation;
- Leading Change: creativity and motivation, external awareness, flexibility, resilience, strategic thinking and vision;
- Leading People: conflict management, leveraging diversity, developing others and team building;
- Results Driven: accountability, customer service, decisiveness, entrepreneurship, problem solving and technical credentials;
- Business Acumen: financial management, human capital management, and technological management;
- Building Coalitions: partnering, political savvy and influence negotiating (Office of Personnel Management, n.d.).

By identifying a set of core skills desirable in its leaders, OPM can assess leaders in these areas. Importantly for this study, it can guide selectors as they seek candidates for leadership positions. Knowing what traits and skills lend to effective leadership allows those assessing candidates for leadership positions to seek out candidates who have the skills before they enter leadership positions.

Relatedly and perhaps most relevantly, the assessments also include leadership potential assessments. This identifies employees who “have the ability to succeed at the level of leadership immediately above their own” (Office of Personnel Management, A Common Framework: The

OPM Executive Core Qualifications, ,). It distinguishes two areas, ability and motivation, believed to be critical for successful leadership. Ability consists of the core competencies discussed earlier in this section. Motivation consists of a few factors, including commitment to the agency, involvement with and enthusiasm for work performed, motivation to lead others, a desire to advance to a position of increased leadership and responsibility and confidence to perform leadership tasks (Office of Personnel Management).

Though the OPM leadership assessment serves a myriad of government agencies, the continuities of leadership across all professional fields means that the assessments offer insight to leadership assessment and selection in law enforcement agencies, certainly, the assessments apply to federal law enforcement agencies like the FBI or the Drug Enforcement Administration (DEA).

**FBI climate survey.** The FBI conducted a Climate Survey of its leadership in 2014 to examine the strengths of its current front-line and executive leaders as well as to examine where the agency needed to focus its development trainings. Studies like these are crucial because they give agencies like the FBI a baseline for leadership expectations from subordinates, they describe how things are at that point in time, and they give leaders insight into what their employees believe should change. The FBI Climate Survey offers a glimpse into what sort of qualities subordinates prefer to see in their leaders.

One of the highest-rated characteristics from subordinates is that supervisors are supportive of their employees' work-life balance (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2014). Also noteworthy is that the survey participants believe that their leaders demonstrate enthusiasm, are approachable, should keep their positions, they represent the FBI well and they make decisions based on the overall FBI strategy (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2014). These characteristics

demonstrate a desire for leaders who value and foster teamwork across the organization as well as their own individual peer groups, which in this case are local FBI field offices.

As for the executive FBI leadership, survey respondents also empathize teamwork and collaboration in their responses. The FBI employees give the executive leadership high ratings for their enthusiasm and commitment, their ability to create and maintain effective relationships with law enforcement agencies, their ability to work well with other outside entities like other government agencies, their decisiveness and collaboration with other leaders (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2014).

The emphasis on collaboration demonstrates that employees know that teamwork is crucial for leaders. Leaders who lack in this area cannot lead. The FBI employees survey responses demonstrated that they required trust in and respect from their leaders, and that they seemed to believe that this trust and respect is crucial to the agency's functioning.

### **Discussion and Analysis**

Law enforcement is a difficult profession. The stress and unpredictability of the job takes its toll on officers throughout their careers. Officers often leave the field before they reach retirement age because of burnout from the stress of the job. This poses a few problems for leadership within these organizations. First, low retention rates mean a lack of continuity for an organization. Turnover means a constant stream of fresh faces and beliefs, which could affect how efficiently the organization functions; newer employees may not be on the same page as older, established ones.

Another prolific problem in law enforcement is attrition. Attrition means that those with experience may not stay long enough to reach leadership positions. Secondly, the pool of potential leaders will be smaller because more qualified candidates may have left the

organization before they could be promoted. Lastly, burnout may lead to apathy among officers, which will affect their ability to carry out their duties to the detriment of their agency's functionality. All these factors hinder the ability to identify and utilize potential leadership. The potential leadership and their positive influence can be significant, and are frequently pervasive throughout law enforcement organizations (Bennis & Narnus, 2001).

There are certain characteristics of leadership that translate across different disciplines and situations. The qualities and skills of leaders in law enforcement are not unique to that occupation; they display attitudes, oversee subordinates, experience biases, and maintain responsibilities just as leaders in other occupations do. One aspect of law enforcement that is unique, however, is the danger and resulting stress that both officers and leaders experience on the job. Law enforcement is also unpredictable; no two days at work are the same for both officers and their supervisors. The danger involved in this occupation means that it sometimes attracts people who exhibit characteristics of the darker side of human nature, and therefore the darker side of leadership.

Although the vetting process to enter the field of law enforcement is rife with a myriad of selection tools and instruments, none has proven to guarantee that only the most suited candidates are hired. Individuals that find the law enforcement profession appealing are sometimes initially drawn to its perceived heightened levels of excitement, like high-speed pursuits or dangerous encounters that do not exist in other professions. These situations tend to provide the kind of immediate pleasure or satisfaction that is most closely associated with narcissistic behavior. This appears to provide support for McIntosh and Rima's (1997) assertion that dark leaders, who display narcissistic behaviors, indulge their own desires for self-aggrandizement through pursuing and attaining leadership roles (Engel & Worden, 2003).

Culture further perpetuates narcissistic behaviors in its training of new officers who are molded into thinking and doing things the way the organization wants them done. In this regard, it is plausible that officers who work within a culture that develops and sustains narcissistic behavior could ultimately become similarly narcissistic leaders within the organization. This coupled with the attractiveness of the profession by people with narcissistic or other dark characteristics, means that the organizational culture of law enforcement agencies may unintentionally retain officers with these dark characteristics that it attracts in the first place. Meanwhile, and perhaps unintentionally, the new police executive, unaware of his propensity to exhibit narcissistic behaviors, begins to disconnect from engaging in effective transformational leadership practices (Behn, 2003).

The duties of the traditional law enforcement officer may include resolving a dispute between storefront owners, helping a homeless person find a homeless shelter, helping a family find their lost child, settling a conflict between neighbors, bringing mentally ill members of the public into protective custody, diffusing a disorderly crowd, stopping speeding drivers, giving first aid to accident victims, or referring an ill, indigent, or elderly person to social services (Yukl, 1989). Police officers are also problem solvers; they assess situations in the field to try to address the problems faced by the communities that they police. They may also serve as mentors to other officers or younger members of their communities. Lastly, and perhaps the most obviously, police officers are there to enforce the law. All of these responsibilities require both technical expertise and interpersonal skills, and any of them could devolve into a crisis situation if handled clumsily or ineffectively (Miller, 2005). To perform these jobs dutifully, officers need strong leaders to serve as role models (Yukl, 1989).

Law enforcement must deal with all members of society. They must learn to work with the general public and members of the community, with other members of the law enforcement community, and, most obviously, with criminals. All law enforcement agencies implement policies and procedures that their officers must follow in their interactions with members of each of these groups. Often, officers must make near-instantaneous decisions in the field. They must do so with limited information and sometimes false information; the danger here is that policies and procedures may not be enough for officers to make correct decisions, which can affect both the members of the public involved as well as the officer (Bennis & Narnus, 2001).

Law enforcement supervisors who craft department policies that govern officer behavior as well as cultivate the working environment of the agency also affect organizational structure in police work. Strong departmental leadership has a positive impact on how emotionally or psychologically invested officers are when they carry out the duties of their jobs. Likewise, when they find that their goals or the realities of their job are not compatible with the policies and practices of the department, they can feel less invested in their jobs (Yukl, 1989). One way that law enforcement leaders can mitigate this is by offering training to officers that can help them realign their expectations and goals to ones that are both more realistic as well as congruent to the goals of the agency.

### **Impending Leadership Crisis**

A review of the literature related to current leadership in law enforcement also reveals the concerns about a future leadership crisis within law enforcement agencies that has already existed for more than a decade. What matters is how this impending crisis is addressed. To that end, good leadership should not just be about people skills, but technical proficiencies. Good leaders also do not forget those below them, nor do they forget that they too climbed through the

ranks to their position. Their primary responsibility is to demonstrate leadership that is distinct from those who they lead. When discussing expected characteristics of good leaders, honesty, integrity, ethical conduct and reliability are often cited.

Law enforcement officers' job satisfaction is highly dependent on the culture of leadership within the department they work for. This culture can be indirectly or directly related to the organizational environment of their agencies. In fact, poor leadership can make officers' jobs harder, both through direct behaviors or indirect attitudes. Previous research on potential leadership among law enforcement agencies in the United States suggests that a disconnect exists between officers and their supervisors and leaders regarding best practices for law enforcement (Conger, 2003). Performing in depth interviews of key leaders of these specific perceptions related to leadership in law enforcement would assist law enforcement leadership in understanding how to implement best practices in the law enforcement organizations as well as to mitigate deficiencies more effectively.

### **Summary**

This chapter began with a discussion of leadership, who conducts it and how it is different from management. The chapter then explored the importance of studying leadership and then presented various theories and types of leadership. Skills that affect leadership quality, both negative and positive, were examined. Next, the ways in which scholars' study and gauge leadership were considered. Then, real-world applications of the theoretical background were presented. The tools offered by the U.S. government to its leaders were discussed, as was the significance of the existence of such tools. Similarly, the FBI climate survey administered in 2014 was discussed, as was its significance of this research. The review of the literature on



leadership, both contemporary and historical, presented in this chapter provides a backdrop for this research and illuminates the need for further study.

## **Chapter 3: Methods**

### **Introduction**

This chapter will discuss the research methodology used in this study. This will include the design of the study, participation selection process, data collection, and how the data was analyzed.

### **Statement of the Problem**

In law enforcement, perhaps even more so than other professions, leadership is an essential factor for the stability of the work environment and the resiliency of individual officers. Although all concerns reported by officers cannot be removed, any negative impact due to organizational efficiency can and should be mitigated. Previous research suggests that supervisors' and officers' perspectives and priorities when it comes to how they execute the responsibilities and duties of their jobs. Officers and supervisors also perceive differently the policies and practices that govern the organization, which in turn leads them to expect different styles of leadership (Engel & Worden, 2003). This can lead to disparate understandings and conflicts between officers and leaders with respect to their unique duties and responsibilities.

What matters most is how leaders cope with the expectations and realities of their officers. It is assumed that certain personal characteristics lend to more functional problem-solving skills than others. Without an understanding of these characteristics, it will be difficult or impossible to identify possible future leaders who could lead their organization effectively. Without strong leadership, organizations cease to function effectively. Given the dangerous and unpredictable nature of working in law enforcement, it is especially important that these agencies avoid dysfunction at both the leadership and rank-and-file levels.

An early study exploring how leadership affects and influences law enforcement officers found that approximately 25% of law enforcement officers believed potential leadership primarily originated from distributing responsibilities and duties equally on specific job roles in the organization. The leadership styles of law enforcement leaders have been studied for specifically to help agencies develop potential leadership and improve workplace climate. Additionally, recent findings suggest that despite the difficulties that face agencies and officers, law enforcement officers still perceive their supervisors as sources of inspiration. Specifically, the guidance and wisdom that more experienced leaders and others in the law enforcement chain of command can be very effective to improve officers' resilience and help them to develop strong leadership qualities (Behn, 2003).

Effective use of Emotional Intelligence (EI) concepts and theories is also an important foundation of any leadership approach. Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (2000) define EI as "an ability to recognize the meanings of emotions and their relationships, and to reason and problem-solve on the basis of them" (p. 267). In the researcher's view and my experience, EI is defined as a set of skills that can be developed, mastered and used effectively, or ignored at one's own peril (Goleman, 2004). Managerial leaders within mid-size organizations and learning institutions may choose to enhance their skills by pursuing higher education in a number of fields or by attending development programs specific to their jobs. Federal agencies within the U.S. normally sponsor and send their executives to the Kellogg School of Management at Northwest University in Chicago, IL for advanced executive training. As discussed earlier, effective leaders have mastered the tactical and technical of their jobs. They also do not forget the challenges they face as they rose through the ranks of their organization. On top of this, they must act as leaders.

Examining a leader's behavior is one of the most effective means to analyze and understand their character. Law enforcement organizations need to understand how to implement best leadership practices to become more productive and to mitigate deficiencies more effectively. In order to understand what improvements to make in law enforcement leadership training, the attitudes, leadership styles, and beliefs of law enforcement leaders must be understood. Leadership with great potential helps to reduce stress and can also help agencies retain more experienced employees. Not just developing potential leadership of law enforcement agencies, but also learning how to magnify the impact of strong leadership, are crucial to the success of law enforcement organizations. Leadership is developed by work experience, and the quality of leadership affects the physical and emotional health of law enforcement personnel, which in turn influences how well officers are able to carry out their jobs. Negative leadership can traumatize law enforcement officers, making them less effective at their jobs as they experience a decreased morale (More et al., 2003).

### **Purpose of the Study**

The main purpose of this study is to interview, explore and create a list of common leadership characteristics valued and sought by highly experienced leaders of local government, including a mayor and police chiefs at various police departments throughout Southern California. The study will focus on the following: critical components of the nomination or selection process, competencies and characteristics, as well as past experiences and climate surveys that are vital for future leaders to possess and be selected. This study will also complement the existing body of the research by exploring the perceptions of decision makers who ultimately make hiring decisions.

## Research Questions

In order to explore the perceptions of the points of view of current leaders in law enforcement, the study will address the following key questions and assessments:

1. What characteristics are critical for future leaders in law enforcement communities?
2. How does one build a strong team that fosters positive line and staff relationship and overall effective leadership?
3. How important is a climate survey for future leaders in law enforcement agencies?

## Research Design

This study will employ Sequential Mixed Methods Exploratory Design process to investigate the beliefs of experienced law enforcement and civil service leaders, as well as police officer trainees undergoing the Los Angeles Police Department academy, regarding characteristics, competencies, and professional experiences they believe are essential for future leaders in law enforcement agencies.

### **Procedural steps in the Sequential Mixed Methods Exploratory Design process.**

*Overview.* The Sequential Mixed Methods Exploratory Design process will start with interviews to get qualitative data from a targeted population, which will be an honorary mayor, and seven law enforcement executives. It will be followed by surveys administered to law enforcement leaders asking them to rate the level of importance they ascribe to particular qualities.

**First step:** The process will start with a purposive sample, seeking input from experts from an honorary mayor and seven law enforcement leaders, who are senior executive levels, both state and federal. These participants will form a panel of experts. This step will consist of qualitative interviews with the panel.

**Second step:** A survey will be designed based on findings from the first step, and will be distributed to law enforcement officers on the street or at police substations, to include police officers who are reservists in the Coastal Riverine squadron based out of Seal Beach, CA. The main purpose of the survey is to have the officers rate the qualities of a new chief or key executive in the police department, with a rating scale of 7 to rate the importance of each factor that was learned during the interviews. Open-ended questions will also be asked to the peace officers to list any critical characteristics that the first group might have missed.

**Panel of experts.** The panel must include enough members to reveal a variety of perspectives on the issue at hand, but must be small enough to ensure that the data analysis will be manageable for the researcher (Linstone & Turoff, 1975). At the same time, the panel must be large enough to compensate for attrition, which may result from the number of rounds of questioning that panel members experience in the Sequential Mixed Methods Exploratory Design.

**Validity and reliability.** The Sequential Mixed Methods Exploratory Design process is characterized by qualitative and quantitative data collection in which experts provide their beliefs regarding a specific set of questions. In order to ensure a large enough sample size as well as to ensure the validity of the answers, the researcher plans to encourage timely participation from all of the subjects in each of the phases of the study. The interviewees will be interviewed in person and the recruit surveys will be administered in person

### **Procedures and Analysis**

**Selection of experts.** The participants in this study will be drawn from two sources. The first will come from a pool of police chiefs and one mayor from throughout Southern California. The sample will be limited to those who respond to the request for interview. The second group

of participants will be a group of approximately 60 individuals from Los Angeles Police Department academy. All members of this sample group will complete the survey at each stage of the process; attrition will not be a factor. The survey and interview process are designed in a distinctive way assuring that the panel members are all experts in their field, to ensure that the research study will result in more accurate results. The researcher will identify which subjects to select as an experts for the panel based on criteria that has been established at the beginning of the research study, most notably their leadership positions in local law enforcement agencies. The success of a qualitative research depends on the level in which the researcher is involved with the participants since it has an important impact on how data is collected and interpreted. The researcher will be open and honest about the purpose of the research study creating this way a respectful relationship with participants.

**Human subjects considerations.** This study will involve interview and survey research with adult participants who are not part of any protected group. Subjects who participate in the qualitative research study are mentioned as participants due to the cooperative relationship between the participants and the researcher. Participants are invited to be part of the research for their experience, knowledge and expertise, which is very valuable and closely related to the study conducted. They will not be deceived regarding the nature of the study or what the data will be used for. They will not face financial or employment risks due to their participation or the contents of their contributions. Because these risks do not exist, this study will meet the requirements for exemption under section 45 CFR 46.101(b)(3) of the federal regulations of the United States Department of Health and Human Services that govern the protection of human subjects.

Accordingly, the researcher will file an application for the claim of exemption with the Institutional Review Board at Pepperdine University. To their end, all participants will receive and sign an informed consent form that will explain the purpose of the study, the methodology of the study, the benefits of the study, and the anticipated time commitment. It will include a statement indicating that participants were informed that participation was voluntary and that they could choose to end their participation at any time, as well as a statement explaining that only the researcher will know of their participation and not published. At this stage of the research, it is essential to obtain informed consent from all research subjects to guarantee that every potential subject has been presented with the chance to decide whether he or she is willing to participate in the research project. The researcher has the responsibility to spend time with the participants and to communicate to them all the essential information regarding the research study until the prospective participants have understood the information. After the future participants obtain the necessary information regarding the research study and they have confirmed that they understand this material, the researcher will obtain the participants' voluntary consent.

The researcher will ensure the confidentiality of participants and plans to report results only in aggregate form. No raw survey data will be published, and only the researcher will see the raw data. As literature shows, in some instances, the researcher may accidentally or knowingly permit unauthorized people to have access to sensitive data collected from the participants leading to breach of confidentiality.

To prevent unauthorized access, hard copies of questionnaires and notes will be kept in a locked file cabinet in the researcher's office within FBI space that is already manned with armed security 24/7, and all electronic data will be maintained in a password protected electronic file.



All identifying information on survey responses will remain unavailable to anyone other than the researcher, and all data under the researcher's jurisdiction will be destroyed after a period of three years from the completion of the study. Throughout the qualitative research study, any breach of confidentiality will be treated with significant concern considering that the number of participants is not large and also that the qualitative study includes reporting of recorded quotes from the participants. The researcher will manage all the private information that has been shared by the participants cautiously to assure that confidentiality will be guaranteed throughout the research process.

**Recruitment of participants.** To solicit members for this panel of experts, informal verbal invitations were proposed to the honorary mayor and law enforcement executives throughout Southern California. A formal invitation will be sent, which will explain the purpose of the study, describe the participation requirements, and describe the possible length of time the survey will take. The potential members will be asked to volunteer their time, and the researcher will conduct in-person interviews as the members' schedules permit.

**Phase one.** To begin the study, the researcher will conduct semi-structured interviews with the panel members individually, presenting a fixed set of questions without fixed responses. This allows the researcher to craft a series of questions homogenous across each interview, but at the same time allows the researcher the flexibility to ask probing questions. These questions could include things like, "Can you give me an example?" "Can you tell me more about that?" or "What can you tell me about...?" (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). Such questions are important for clarity and allow the respondents the opportunity to clarify what they mean, so that the researcher does not have to infer meaning from the answers; such inferences would be subject to the researcher's bias. The researcher will plan what the interview should focus on, but during the

interview there might not be any set sequence of questions. As the researcher attains a deeper knowledge from the successions of interviews, the questions applied in the interviews are inclined to change as part of the qualitative research interview process. During the interview process, the participants are permitted and urged to share information about important matters that initially were not asked by the researcher.

Before beginning the interview, the researcher will ask each subject for his or her permission to have a written survey with authorization form. The researcher will begin each interview by asking the participant to identify characteristics that he or she believes are critical for leaders in law enforcement to possess in order to ensure organizational efficiency. Once the panel members identify all of the characteristics that they believe are critical for current leaders in law enforcement agencies to possess, the researcher then will ask the interviewees to identify what competencies are critical for future leaders in law enforcement agencies. The researcher will ask follow-up questions as they become necessary. After the participants identify all of the competencies that they believe will be critical for future leaders in law enforcement agencies to possess, the researcher will then ask them to identify professional experiences that they believe are critical for future leaders in law enforcement agencies to possess, along with follow-up questions as necessary. The interviews will be audio recorded with each interviewee's permission. Several approaches will be used for collecting data from the participants during the interview, such as taking notes during the interview, writing detailed notes directly following the interviews, and also recording the interview on tape or digitally. Once the interviews are completed, the researcher will transcribe the recordings made with the digital tape recorder to be able to study the recorded data from a more detailed approach. Study recommends listening to recordings as soon as possible right after the interview

Then, the researcher will conduct a content analysis on the interview transcripts to determine the list of characteristics, competencies, and professional experiences identified by panel members that are critical for future leaders in law enforcement agencies to possess. Thorough record keeping will be implemented for keeping track of associations between the individual parts of data collected.

After the completion of the interview transcriptions, the researcher will use an inductive coding procedure that allows the researcher to distinguish categories of responses from the respondents' answers to the questions asked during their interviews. The procedure will involve:

- Preparation of raw data - the raw data will be formatted with a uniform style and will make backup files of each transcription.
- Close reading of text - once the data is cleaned, the raw text the researcher will familiarize himself with the content, the themes, and the details in the text. An artificial intelligence software program, HyperRESEARCH, will be utilized to derive themes that emerge in the text.
- Creation of categories - the researcher will identify categories that arise from the data. The goals of the research will guide the emergence and creation of more general categories. The raw data will provide specific categories. This is called "in vivo" coding, where categories are created from the actual phrases that respondents used during their interviews.
- Overlapping coded and uncoded text – the researcher will code parts of the text into multiple categories. Meanwhile, a significant portion of text will not be placed into any category if it is not relevant to the goals of the research.

- Continuing revision and refinement of category system - the researcher will seek out subtopics, such as information or opinions that contradict each other or insights that were unique to a respondent. Quotes will be pulled from the text that display core themes that emerge from the data.

**Phase Two.** The researcher will build a comprehensive list of characteristics, competencies, and professional experiences crucial for leaders in law enforcement agencies to possess from the content analysis performed on the interview transcripts. A questionnaire will be constructed in which each of the characteristics, competencies, and professional experiences that emerged during the coding process was listed. A 7-point Likert scale will be used for the respondents to rate each item provided on the questionnaire. In this scale, one will indicate no importance and seven will indicate an item of critical importance. Furthermore, the questionnaire will provide the opportunity for participants to answer an open-ended question to identify any additional characteristics, competencies, or professional experiences that were overlooked in the questions asked.

### **Limitations of the Study**

As with all studies, this one is limited by the bias of the researcher. The researcher's bias may affect selection of the participants, the content of the surveys administered, and how the researcher analyzes the data (Lang, 1994). When there is bias in a study, the findings could be inaccurate and different from what the results could be without the bias. A second limitation of this study is specific to the Sequential Mixed Methods Exploratory Design process; there exist no specific guidelines for the criteria to determine consensus among panel members (Keeney, Hasson, & McKenna, 2006).

An additional limitation is the cross-sectional nature of this research, in that data was collected during a fixed period of time. Given the increasing and changing demands placed on law enforcement agencies, officers, and their leaders, it is possible that the characteristics, competencies, and professional experiences currently thought necessary for future law enforcement agency leaders must be able to adapt in the future.

One last limitation of the Sequential Mixed Methods Exploratory Design process is that no standardized analytic system exists for the open-ended responses collected in the first phase of the process (Whitman, 1990). So that researcher bias in the content analysis of the Phase One data, the researcher plans to utilize Thomas's (2003) inductive coding process involving constant comparison.

## **Summary**

This chapter described the methods and procedures of the study that will be conducted. It provided an explanation of the Sequential Mixed Methods Exploratory Design process, which will be the method the researcher will employ to analyze the qualitative data collected. Every step of the process was explained, and also the general strategy of the research was discussed. As previously mentioned, weak or unprofessional leadership impedes law enforcement officers' ability to perform their duties in ways that benefit their agencies and communities. Sworn law enforcement officers perceive their work conditions to be more hazardous when top leadership lacks the necessary leadership skills; managers' responsibilities exist whether or not they have the necessary skills. Because of such deficiencies, many law enforcement agencies are experiencing very high turnover rates and a greater risk to officer safety and effectiveness, which negatively impacts the organization and the community that these officers serve. As a result of this ineffectiveness officers may also become apathetic in their duties toward their agency and

the community. Lastly, the limitations of the study were discussed, as were a few strategies to mitigate the limitations when possible.

## **Chapter 4: Results**

### **Introduction**

As indicated in chapter 3, the researcher applied a sequential mixed methods exploratory process using qualitative and quantitative analysis. This chapter will include qualitative data gathered through 8 interviews, as well as quantitative data gathered through surveys administered to 50 subjects.

### **Selection Process of the Participants**

The goal of this study was to examine the characteristics that may be indicators of future successful law enforcement leadership. This study drew data from two places. The first is from 8 law enforcement executives. The second was 50 recruits currently in their fourth month of the Los Angeles Police Department academy.

This study was based on key law enforcement leaders in the city of Los Angeles. Thus, the study population consisted of leaders from a variety of backgrounds and responsibilities within the field of law enforcement. Selected participants have varying levels of experience that provides a broader view of leadership in this field. Leaders were also selected based on their varied lengths of experience. All participants were contacted first by phone and set up appointments for in-person interview. They voluntarily agreed to participate in the interview. All participants were informed of the study and its purpose, assured of its confidentiality and invited to submit concerns or questions to the researcher via phone or in person all participants granted permission to use their names and information for this study through the approved IRB informed forms.

The 8 candidates chosen as law enforcement executives already hold or have in the past held leadership positions within law enforcement agencies. The participants for this study were

selected on the basis of two criteria, first was their executive positions within a law enforcement agency-and secondly, of those persons, the officers who also had a minimum of 20 years of duty within government service. Then, of these candidates, requiring that they had to have reached their positions in only one of two ways further refined the selection process. The first way was that he or she had to have risen up through the ranks of the organization to earn an executive position. The other requirement was that the candidate had to have been elected to the position, either through a general election or as a political appointee.

This study was based on key law enforcement leaders in Southern California. The study population consisted of leaders from a variety of backgrounds and responsibilities within the field of law enforcement. In depth interviews of key leaders was conducted to determine the predominant leadership characteristics and beliefs. The eight interviewees who met these criteria and included in the study were:

1. Chief of Police, Local Police Department
2. Honorary Mayor, Los Angeles, CA
3. Commander, Local Sheriff's Department
4. White House Advisor, Asian Pacific Islander Advisory committee
5. Chair, Criminal Justice Program, local university.
6. Senior Executive Service, Federal Bureau of Investigation
7. Senior Executive Service, Department of Homeland Security
8. Commander, United States Coastguard

The respondents were asked 8 questions, which they were given prior to the interview so that they could prepare their answers to ensure thorough responses. The researcher asked



each respondent the same questions each respondent was asked the same questions in the same order.

The approved key research questions were:

1. What personality characteristics are essential to the success of future law enforcement leaders?
2. What are the existing gaps and shortcomings in terms of knowledge, skills and abilities, if any, among law enforcement officials in light of public sentiment today?
3. How does one build a strong team that fosters positive line and staff relationship and overall effective leadership?
4. How important is a climate survey for future leaders in law enforcement agencies?
5. What are the key characteristic components for building organizational (or leadership) excellence?

### **Interview Process**

The researcher began the interview by introducing himself, thanking the interviewee for taking the time to contribute their time and data to the study, and explained the structure and reason for the interview. The researcher then requested permission from the interviewee to record the interview in order to preserve the accuracy of the interviewee's input. All but one of the interviewees gave the researcher permission to make an audio recording of the interview; the researcher used a digital audio recorder for this purpose. The recorded audio was backed up by another smartphone device and was transcribed using HyperTRANSCRIBE software within 48 hours.

The researcher asked the interviewees, based on the approved questions, to identify the characteristics, characteristics, competencies, and professional experiences that they considered

critically important for law enforcement leaders to possess. The interviews ranged in length from 13.43 minutes to 21.02 minutes; the mean length of the interviews was 15.18 minutes.

### **Transcription and Coding**

To begin the data analysis process from the interviews that were digitally recorded, the researcher first transcribed each of the eight interviews. After the researcher transcribed all of the interviews, the researcher utilized HyperRESEARCH software, an inductive coding procedure helped the researcher identify categories and topics in the responses to the interview questions. The researcher first prepared the raw data files in a Microsoft Excel document, and then read the raw text in detail to become familiar with the details in the text. Then, based on this close reading of the text, the researcher identified and defined categories and themes.

### **Question 1 Results**

Question 1 was asked of all interviewees. The question asked, “What are the personality characteristics that are essential to the success of future law enforcement leaders?” The general theme that emerged from all eight interviewees was that successful law enforcement leaders must look outside of themselves to lead and that successful leaders do not simply use their agencies to cater to their own beliefs or biases.

A total of 27 characteristics emerged during the interviews. Multiple respondents mentioned many of the same characteristics. Integrity and compassion were the most frequently mentioned characteristics with four respondents stating they believe that compassion and integrity were desirable personality characteristics for identifying potential law enforcement leadership. Three respondents cited decision-making skills Accountability, leading by example, community oriented, empathetic, honesty, listener, and service oriented followed with two

respondents naming those qualities as desirable personality traits. Seventeen other traits also emerged in the responses.

- Problem solving
- Communicator
- Confident
- Courageous
- Credible
- Diplomatic
- Does the right thing
- Fair
- Candid and forthright
- Good judgment
- Interpersonal skills
- Leads by example
- Motivated
- Passionate
- Responsible
- Warrior

### **Question two Results**

Question two was as follows: “What are existing gaps and shortcomings in terms of knowledge, skills and abilities, if there are any, among law enforcement officials in the light of public sentiment today?” A general theme in the respondents’ responses was that law

enforcement leaders often cloister their agencies from the public and themselves from their subordinates, which interferes with the goals of the agency.

Fifteen individual themes emerged in the responses. The most related shortcoming for law enforcement leaders was public relations, which was mentioned by five of the respondents. Four respondents stated that transparency was a shortcoming among law enforcement leaders. The next most popular shortcoming was media relations, which was mentioned by two respondents. The respondents discussed twelve other shortcomings or gaps among law enforcement leaders. Those gaps are listed as follows:

- Active listening
- Afraid of conflict
- Afraid of confrontation
- Communication skills
- Credibility
- Cultural diversity
- Cultural understanding
- Lack of accountability
- Military orientation
- Lack of responsibility
- Technology
- Training

### **Question Three Results**

Question three asked the respondents, “How does one build a strong team that fosters positive line and staff relationships and overall effective leadership?” There were a few general

themes that emerged from the responses. First, effective teams can be built when leaders treat subordinates as stakeholders. The next general theme was that positive line and staff relationships must also be fostered when in the public eye. This means that leaders should be aware of the balance they must strike between being mindful of public service while cultivating a supportive environment for officers on the street.

The most frequent response for their question was lead by example. Five of the respondents stressed the importance of leading by example. Three respondents mentioned accountability, which was the next most popular answer in the responses. The next most frequent mentions were consistency and having a clear goal. The other sixteen responses are as follows:

- Appropriate degree of risk taking
- Aware of being observed
- Believes in team work
- Communication
- Credibility
- Ethics
- Exploitation of ideas
- Global view
- Good rapport
- Real life leadership experience
- Respect and concern for community
- Allows subordinates to make mistakes
- Polices constitutionally
- Right task delegated to the right person

- Support one's team
- Treat all employees with dignity and respect

#### **Question Four Results**

Question four asked the respondents where or how they felt a comprehensive leadership survey, such as a climate survey, fit in their leadership assessment process. "How important is a climate survey for future leaders in law enforcement agencies?" All respondents were supportive of administering climate surveys, but all mentioned concerns they had with the process, as discussed below.

Seven of the eight respondents stated that such surveys were important, while the remaining respondent stated that they would support a climate survey but had no experience with one in his own agency. Concerns of retaliation were mentioned by three of the respondents. Two respondents warned that climate surveys are not a complete picture of an organization or its leaders and should not be treated as such. Ten other evaluations of climate surveys emerged in the data as follows:

- Should be a dynamic process
- Hard to measure
- Improves morale
- Not administered enough
- Should be shared widely
- Should be substantive
- Should improve organizational effectiveness
- Should survey community

### **Question 5**

The last question in the interviews asked respondents, “What are the key characteristic components of building organizational or leadership excellence?”

The most frequent responses to this question were consistency, values, and training. Three respondents mentioned each of these characteristic components. Two respondents mentioned the importance of having clear, unified goals for the organization, and two respondents discussed relegating the right task to the right person. The respondents also cited 10 other characteristic components as follows:

- Ability to accept changes
- The hiring process
- Identify strengths and weaknesses
- Mentoring
- Motivating staff
- Teamwork
- Thinking outside artificial titles
- Transparency
- Understanding
- Understanding of formal and informal leadership

### **LAPD Survey Results**

In addition to the interviews with law enforcement leaders, 50 LAPD recruits currently four months into attending the six-month LAPD academy were administered surveys regarding their views on law enforcement leadership. These surveys were administered anonymously. New recruits were chosen for this survey because their views on leadership would not be

contaminated by experiencing good or bad leadership on the job, but rather their views would be shaped by their expectations.

The surveys consisted of 16 leadership characteristics grouped into four categories of four attributes. Instructions on the surveys indicated that respondents were to rate the importance of each characteristic on a 7-point scale as show below.

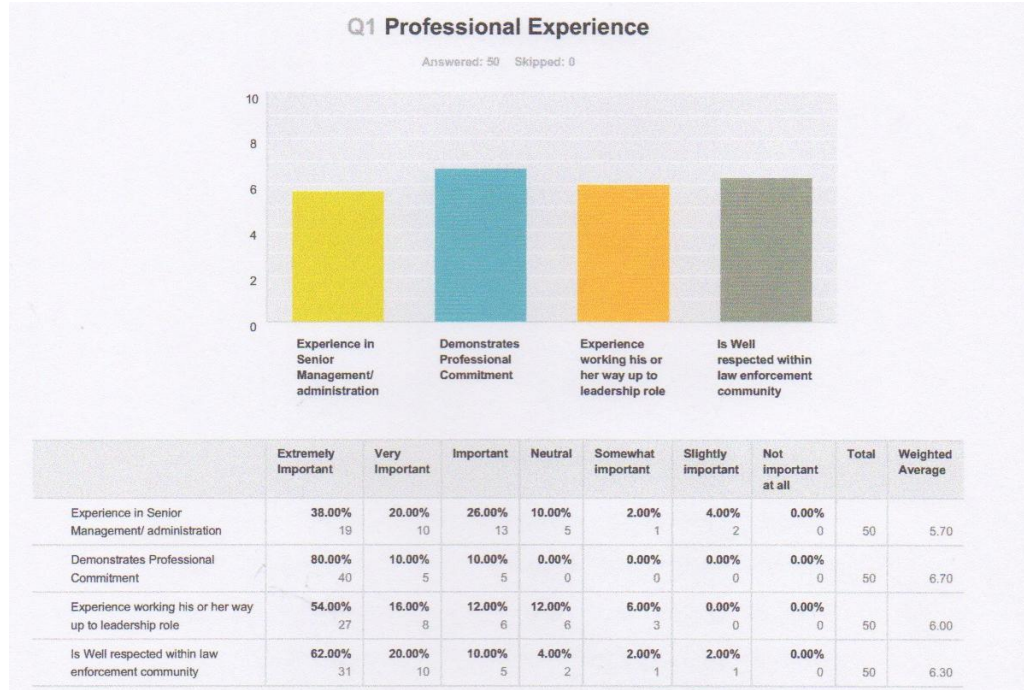
- Extremely important - 7
- Very important - 6
- Important - 5
- Neutral - 4
- Somewhat important - 3
- Slightly important - 2
- Not important at all - 1



The characteristics and their groupings are shown in the table below

Professional Experiences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Experience in senior management/administration</li> <li>• Demonstrates professional commitment</li> <li>• Experience working his/her way up to current leadership role</li> <li>• Is well-respected within law enforcement community</li> </ul>
Competencies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Understands multiculturalism – able to work comfortably with people from diverse cultures</li> <li>• Understands negotiations and contracts</li> <li>• Has an understanding of the challenges within the agency</li> </ul>
Communication Skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Has an ability to establish trust within the agency</li> <li>• Articulate – can communicate clearly and professionally orally and in writing</li> <li>• Good listener – make officers feel that what they say contributes to the mission of the organization</li> <li>• Media savvy – can comfortably navigate media relations</li> <li>• Networking – builds working partnerships with other individuals and agencies</li> </ul>
Leadership Skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Good moral character – honest, does the right thing, is trusted by others</li> <li>• Team-player – able to assemble an effective team</li> <li>• Inter-personal skills – able to talk with any personality type and rank, including civilian employees</li> <li>• Leads by example – motivates employees to do their best work</li> </ul>

## Section 1 results.

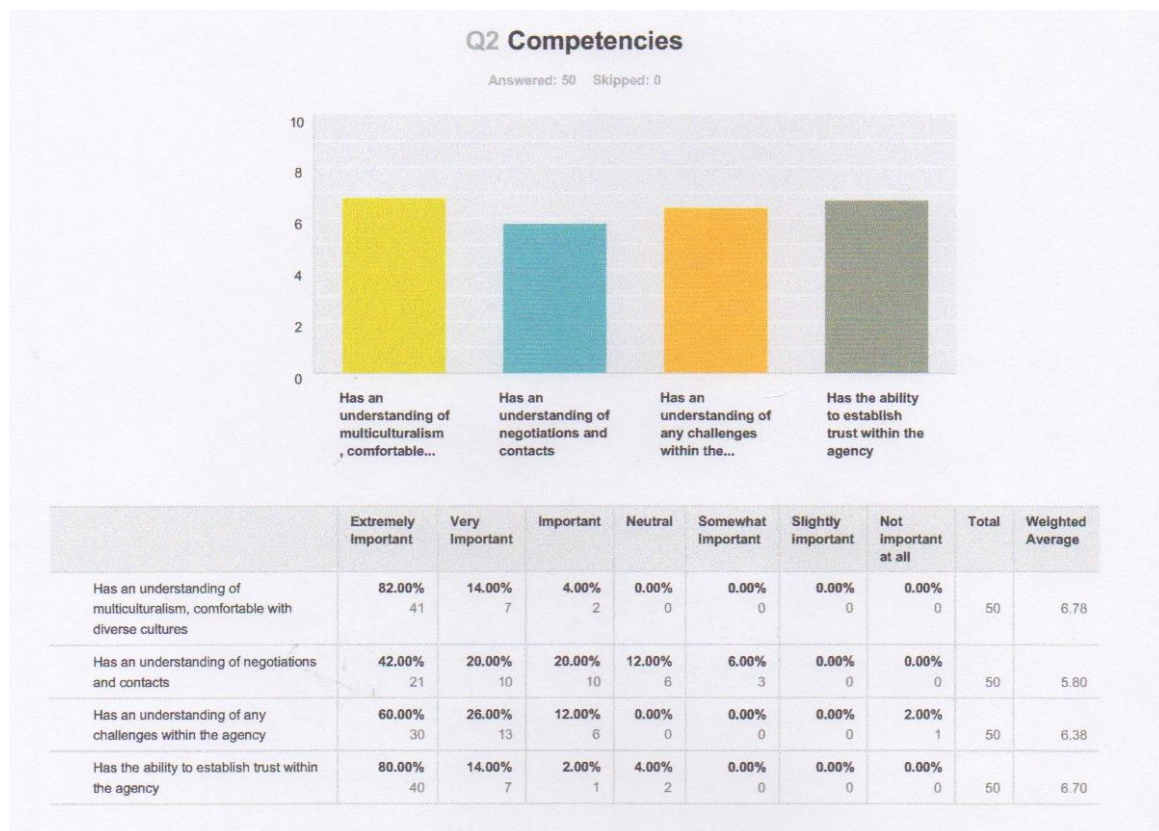


*Figure 1.* Section 1 results.

The results of section 1 are shown in Figure 1 above. The highest rated characteristic of this section was “demonstrates professional commitment,” with a weighted average score of 6.70. Eighty percent of the respondents rated professional commitment as extremely important, and 10% of respondents said that they ranked it either very important or important. The next highest ranked attribute was “is well respected within the law enforcement community,” with 62% of respondents ranking it as somewhat important, 20% ranking it very important, 10% ranking it important, 4% ranking it important, and 2% ranking it either somewhat important or slightly important. The third-highest ranked attribute was “experience working his or her way up to leadership role.” Fifty four percent of respondents ranked it as extremely important, 16% of respondents as very important, 12% as important or neutral, and 6% ranked it as either somewhat important or slightly important. The lowest-ranked characteristic in this

section was “experience in senior management administration,” with 38% of respondents ranking it extremely important, 20% ranking it very important, 26% ranking it as important, 10% ranking it as neutral, 2% ranking it somewhat important, and 4% ranking it slightly important. No respondents ranked any of the professional experience characteristics in this section a “not important at all.”

## Section 2 results.



*Figure 2.* Section 2 results.

The results of section 2 are shown in Figure 2 above. In this section, the highest-rated characteristic was “has an understanding of multiculturalism – is comfortable with diverse cultures,” which 82% of respondents ranked as extremely important, 14% ranked as very important, and 4% ranked as important. No respondents ranked multiculturalism below important. The average score for multiculturalism was 6.78. The next highest rated

characteristic was “has the ability to establish trust within the agency,” with an weighted average of 6.70 and 80% of respondents ranking it as extremely important, 14% at very important, 2% at important, and 4% ranking it neutral. With a weighted average ranking of 6.38, “has an understanding of any challenges within the agency” was the third-highest ranked characteristic. 60% of respondents ranked it extremely important, 26% as very important, and 12% said it was important. One respondent ranked it as not at all important. The lowest-ranked attribute in this section was “has an understanding of negotiations and contracts.” This characteristic had a weighted average of 5.80. Sixty percent of respondents believed it extremely important, 20% very important, 20% as important, and 12% ranked it neutral.

**Section 3 results.**

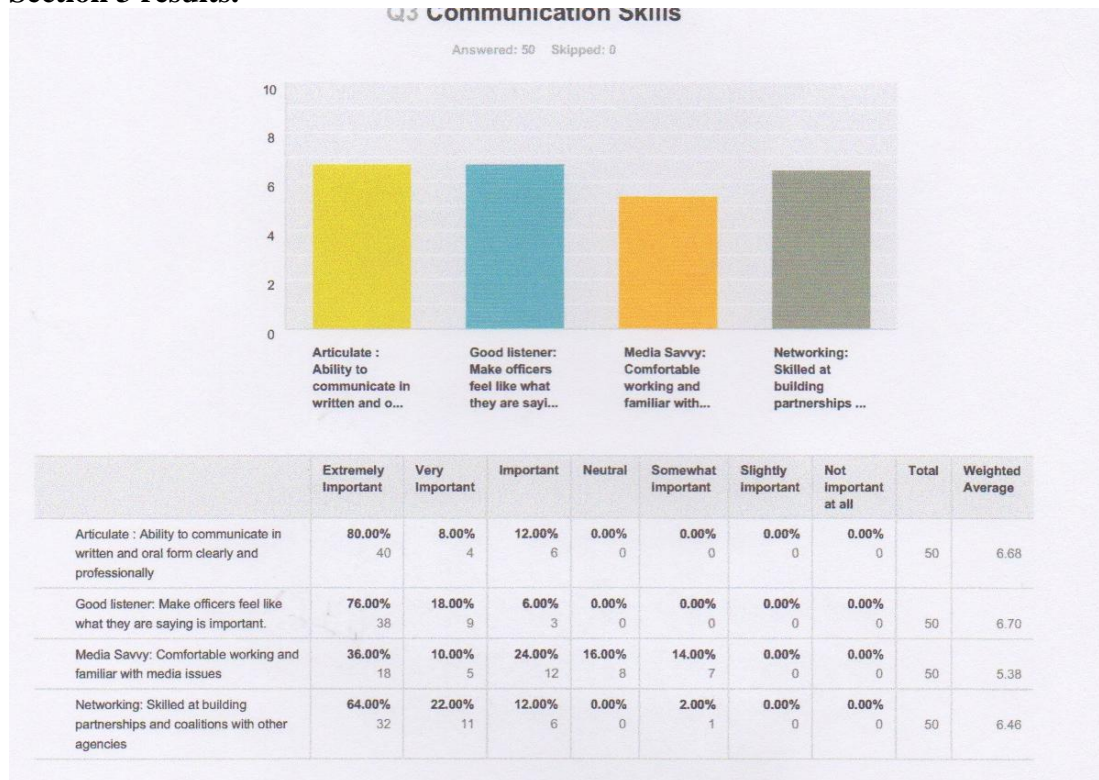


Figure 3. Section 3 results.

The results of section three are shown above in Figure 3. “Good listener” was the highest ranked characteristic of the communication skills in this section, with a weighted average of 6.70. Seventy six percent of the respondents ranked it as extremely important, 18% of the participants ranked good listener as very important, and 6% as important. With an average of 6.68, articulate was the second-highest ranked attribute. For articulate, 80% of respondents ranked it extremely important, 8% as very important, and 12% as important. The third attribute was networking, with an average ranking of 6.46. For this characteristic, 64% of respondents rated it extremely important, 22% rated this quality very important, 12% important and 2% responded that it was somewhat important to them. The lowest-ranked attribute in this section was media savvy, with 36% at extremely important, 10% with very important, 24% at very important, 16% at neutral, and 14% at somewhat important.

#### Section 4 results.

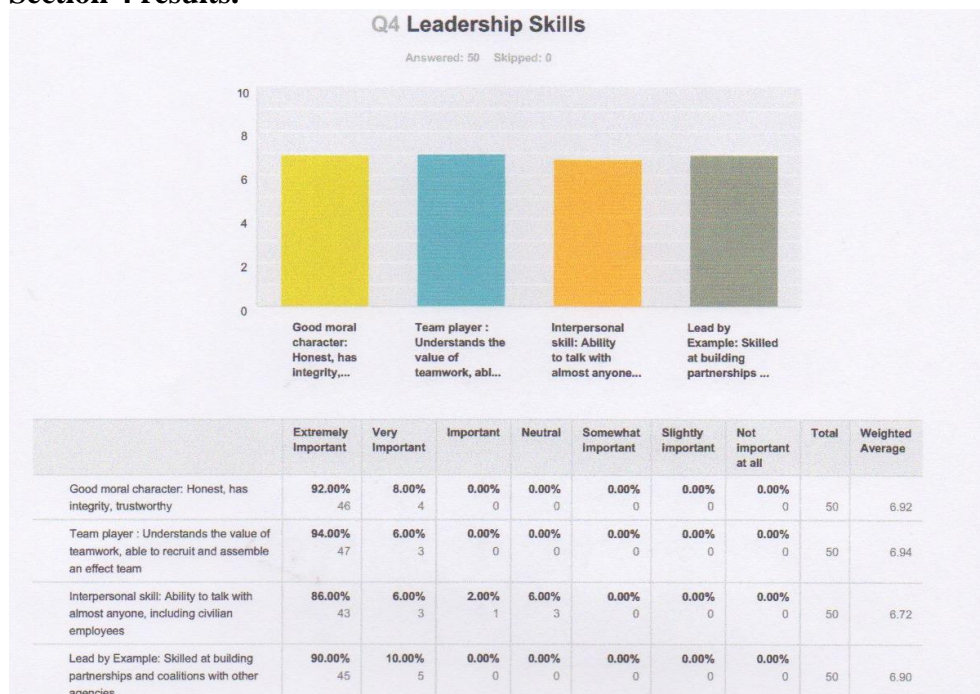


Figure 4. Section 4 results.

The results of section 4, leadership skills, are shown in Figure 4 above. The respondents ranked “team player” the highest out of all four characteristics in their category, but the discrepancy was much smaller between the characteristics in this category than the other three categories. Team player yielded an average of 6.94, with 94% of respondents ranking it extremely important, and 6% of respondents as very important. The next highest-ranked characteristic was “good moral character,” with a 6.92 average. Ninety two percent of respondents ranked this as extremely important, and 8% as very important. The next highest attribute was “lead by example”, with a 6.90 average and 90% of respondents ranking it as extremely important. “Interpersonal skills” was the lowest-ranked characteristic in this category with a 6.72 average. 86% of those surveyed ranked it as extremely important, 6% as very important, 2% as important, and 6% as neutral.

Findings from the study also can be tied into Cashman’s theory (1998) from his book *Leadership From The Inside Out: Seven Pathways to Mastery*. Cashman helps readers to realize that leadership is an expression of who we are as people. We will be able to differentiate what to think and what to achieve from how to think or how to achieve, and what to do instead of how to be (Cashman, 1998). Cashman’s theory gives leaders practical tools to help reflect on the journey of becoming a great leader. This theory helps readers to look at leadership from a different perspective, from the inside out.

In this study, law enforcement leaders emphasized certain personality characteristics that they believed were indicators of strong leadership. In this sense, leaders skills’ express who they are as people. A good leader, according to many of those

interviewed in this research, would display integrity, for example. One interviewee said, “the number one characteristic is integrity, and without integrity, there is no foundation. Integrity would be the foundation, and so that characteristic has to be a foundation fundamental for a supervisor, whether it be a sergeant, a lieutenant, or a captain.” On the other hand, leaders who lack integrity also express themselves through their leadership style. Similarly, strong people make strong leaders and weak people make weak leaders.

Additionally, leadership is more than taking a series of prescript steps. It involves assessing situations and making decisions that address needs as they are, rather than how they should be. For example, many of the interviewees address the antagonism in the United States between law enforcement and the public. Rather than trusting law enforcement, public cynicism focuses on the secrecy of investigations, close protections of information, and perhaps more prevalently, questions of appropriate use of force. One interviewee suggested that rather than close ranks, law enforcement should speak out to communities about the issues that officers face, and the importance of finding a balance between the authority of law enforcement and issues law enforcement faces. This interviewee stated that not only do shortcomings exist in this area on the law enforcement side, but also, “in the community understanding that a lot of the law enforcement issues are outside of law enforcement, they are substance abuse problems, mental illness problems, socioeconomic issues which includes the lack of education and parenting.” Not only does law enforcement need to understand the community in which it works, but the community also needs to be aware of how community issues affect law enforcement officers’ ability to do their jobs. This is the difference between Cashman’s what to do and how to be – addressing problems head on rather than ignoring them

## **Chapter 5: Conclusion**

### **Introduction**

The quest for effective leadership is paramount in modern day's law enforcement agencies, particularly with regard to police agencies within Southern California Area of Responsibility. Selecting, Identifying, training, developing, and promoting law enforcement officers that have the best potential for success to executive leadership positions are critically important challenges for law enforcement organizations. This project started with investigating the relationship between personality and leadership effectiveness of U.S. law enforcement executives. In-person, face to face interviews were conducted and only law enforcement executives with significant leadership experienced were chosen to participate in this study.

The study used both quantitative methodology and quantitative based on coding from the interviews, by using HyperRESEARCH software and the survey design was based from the results of the interview. The goal of using all these tools was to measure characteristics that improved leadership effectiveness. The sample consisted of interviewing eight participants who are law enforcement executives and 50 police Los Angeles Police students who are in their final phase in training at the LAPD Ahmanson Police training center.

Examining leaders' behavior is an effective means to analyze and determine their character. Law enforcement organizations need to understand how to implement best leadership practices to become more productive and to mitigate deficiencies more effectively. In order to understand what improvements to make in law enforcement leadership training, it was important to understand the attitudes, leadership styles, and beliefs of law enforcement leaders.



This study was based on key law enforcement leaders in Southern California. The study population consisted of leaders from a variety of backgrounds and responsibilities within the field of law enforcement. In depth interviews of key leaders was conducted to determine the predominant leadership characteristics and beliefs. The approved key research questions were:

1. What personality characteristics are essential to the success of future law enforcement leaders?
2. What are the existing gaps and shortcomings in terms of knowledge, skills and abilities, if any, among law enforcement officials in light of public sentiment today?
3. How does one build a strong team that fosters positive line and staff relationship and overall effective leadership?
4. How important is a climate survey for future leaders in law enforcement agencies?
5. What are the key characteristic components for building organizational (or leadership) excellence?

From the analysis of the data revealed when leaders describing their leadership styles, the law enforcement leaders showed evidence of the ability to use various traits for different situations. The leaders predominately believe that they are visionary leaders and use transformational leadership characteristics as their primary leadership style. Mentoring, listening and internal training seemed to be believed to be of considerate importance in law enforcement, primarily because most of their leaders are promoted up the ranks instead of being hired from outside organizations.

### **Analysis of the Interview Data**

Four major ideas emerged in the interview and survey data collected.

- Interpersonal skills are crucial to effective leadership
- Good leaders interests extend beyond their own narrow goals
- Effective leaders must lead by example
- Law enforcement leaders must be aware of public and media relations

**Interpersonal skills.** Both the interviewees and survey respondents emphasized the importance of interpersonal skills for law enforcement leaders. Question one of the executive interviews dealt with essential personality characteristics for law enforcement leaders. Of the 27 personality characteristics named by the respondents, 17 of them described how a leader interacted with other people:

- Integrity
- Compassion
- Accountability
- Leading by example
- Community oriented
- Empathetic
- Honest
- Listener
- Service oriented
- Problem solving
- Communicator
- Credible
- Diplomatic
- Does the right thing
- Fair
- Candid and forthright
- Good judgment

- Interpersonal skills
- Responsible

Question two from the interview asked about gaps and shortcomings in leadership that the interviewees perceived in the light of public sentiment. Six of the 14 themes mentioned involved interpersonal skills:

- Active listening
- Communication skills
- Credibility
- Cultural understanding
- Lack of accountability
- Lack of responsibility

Question three asked the interviewees to discuss how leaders could build a strong team between leaders and subordinates. Ten of the 18 themes that emerged were interpersonal skills.

- Aware of being observed
- Believes in teamwork
- Communication
- Credibility
- Good rapport
- Respect and concern for community
- Allows subordinates to make mistakes
- Right task delegated to the right person
- Support one's team

- Treat all employees with dignity and respect

Question five asked the interviewees to assess what characteristic components they thought were necessary for organizational and leadership success.

Question four did not deal with characteristics of good leadership.

The surveys from LAPD also highlighted the recruits' expectation of a leader's interpersonal skills. The recruits rated leadership skills the highest out of the four categories. The overall average for responses in this category was 6.87, followed by 6.42 for competencies, 6.31 for communication skills, and 6.18 for professional experience. The leadership skills the survey respondents ranked all dealt with how a leader handles interacting with peers, subordinates, and the community.

Based on the data gathered by the researcher, it is clear that interpersonal skills are crucial for law enforcement leaders. Leaders must know how to interact positively with both their peers, those below them in their agencies, and the public that they serve. Leaders who lack strong interpersonal skills can breed divisiveness in those under their command, and will not be respected. Lack of respect between line and staff, especially in the paramilitaristic world of law enforcement, can interfere with the mission of the organization. Officers in the street may not feel as if they are stakeholders in the organization's success, and they may not listen to their leadership or do work above the bare minimum required by their position, among other problems that would interfere with a law enforcement agency's ability to carry out its duty of public service.

**Organizational goals.** The second theme to emerge in the data was the effective law enforcement leaders keep wider organizational goals in mind, rather than their own narrow and sometimes political goals or agenda. All of the respondents mentioned the importance of a

leader's focus on organizational goals. Often, leaders fall victim to their own biases and narrow goals, which impacts their professional decision-making. They may not choose the right person for a certain task; rather than delegating a task to someone with more experience or has proven to be responsible, that leader may choose someone less suited for the task because of cronyism, for example. When leaders keep clear and consistent organizational goals in mind, they are more likely to avoid such pitfalls. Five of the interviewees discussed the importance of accountability. A leader who is accountable to his or her employees or to the public adheres to the organizational mission and goals. If that leader instead chooses to pursue his or her own goals or agenda, they are no longer accountable to the organization.

**Lead by example.** The third theme to emerge in the data was that an effective leader leads by example. Six of the interviewees discussed leading by example or a "show me, don't tell me" mentality and how it is crucial to the functioning of an organization. In the surveys administered at the LAPD academy, the respondents gave the third-highest score out of the sixteen characteristics presented in the surveys to "lead by example" with an average of 6.9 out of 7. An effective leader cannot expect his or her subordinates to act in a manner that he or she does not. To do otherwise would send subordinates mixed messages of what is and is not appropriate and expected conduct. An organization, especially one in the public eye as much as a law enforcement agency, cannot achieve its goals when its members are not all on the same page.

**Public relations.** Public and media relations are paramount for law enforcement agencies and their leaders. Because law enforcement serves the public, it must be held accountable to the public. However, enforcing the law requires a certain amount of secrecy to carry out its business. However, law enforcement leaders are tasked with striking a difficult balance between the transparency the public desires and the opacity needed to curb criminal behavior. Five of the

interviewees discussed transparency as a gap or shortcoming in question three of the interviews. Others discussed the recent events that have shown law enforcement in an unfavorable light, such as the Ferguson, MO riots since August 2014, or the national discussion of use of force. Many cited misconceptions that the public has regarding every day parts of police business including use of force, which has become extremely visible in the past few years. One interviewee stated that one problem police leaders face is that members of the public take media portrayals of police interactions with the public as gospel, while those media portrayals may be fueled by the same misconceptions that exist in the public sphere.

All of the respondents mentioned the importance of being community- and service-oriented in a myriad of ways. One interviewee mentioned that community members do not have an alternative to their local police force the way they do when accessing other services, and therefore law enforcement leaders need to bear in mind the mission of the organization when dealing with the public. Others mentioned issues of cultural diversity; law enforcement leaders need to be aware of the various cultural groups who inhabit a jurisdiction, and leaders should cultivate a cultural understanding of these groups.

As the gap widens between law enforcement and the public that law enforcement officers and leaders serve, it has become more important than ever to understand and identify good leadership in law enforcement. Strong and effective leadership is needed to address the public relations issues that have arisen as a result of the growing national debate on police brutality. More importantly, potential leadership needs to be considered in the present to ensure that future leaders will know how to more effectively lead their agencies through the murky waters of public opinion. Developing strong leadership skills can help leaders, often the face of a law enforcement agency, decide what course of action to take when addressing the public. Many of

the interviewees in this study discussed how the secrecy as a policy for agencies has bred a deep distrust in the public of law enforcement. Identifying potential leadership means identifying a person who is more capable of striking a balance between the opacity necessary to protect investigations and the transparency that can improve public trust once again.

**Discrepancies.** Only one significant discrepancy between the executives' responses and the recruits' survey data emerged. There was a consensus among interviewees that good leaders are not born, but instead learn by experience. Real life leadership experience was cited as a necessity for a law enforcement leader to be an effective leader. However, the professional experience category in the LAPD surveys received the lowest average scores of all four categories, with an average of only 6.18. This can be explained by the lack of real-world law enforcement experience of the recruits, versus the minimum 20 years of experience in the field that each of the interviewees was required to have.

### **Implications for the Future**

Managerial leaders within mid-size law enforcement agencies are able to further their skills and position by earning a Master's degree in Criminal Justice or Human Resource development programs. Major U.S. Federal Law enforcement agencies normally sponsor and send their Senior Executive Services to Kellogg school of Management Northwest University, Chicago, IL for advanced executive training. Managerial leadership was reviewed and analyzed in this research because it fills the gap in the management list that was derived many of the leadership practices described herein. The reason was that, in reality while today's leaders are being tasked with being in charge of specific roles and responsibilities, they are also being challenged by the upper chain of command to produce changes and improvements in other areas.

The data shows that officers do expect that their leaders possess the tactical and technical proficiencies required of their own jobs, and that leaders do recognize this. The data also showed that effective leaders do not forget the challenges and responsibilities of the positions they once held before they were promoted. Just as notable is that the same character traits presented themselves throughout the interviews; almost all the participants cited the importance of characteristics like consistency and integrity for effective leaders. Honesty, integrity and reliability, as well as upholding the core mission and values of the agency they lead.

The interviewees and survey respondents valued a variety of leadership styles. The leaders noted that they must act as managers, but did not prefer a top-down approach. They did not prefer transactional leadership. This leadership style is considered managerial, where instead of being communal, transactional leadership emphasizes individuals or small groups within the larger organization who are favored by a supervisor or leader. Cooperation normally is sometimes coerced by negotiations and loyalty to a supervisor is encouraged with rewards to the individuals. In these cases, some employees within the work place do not feel compelled to ensure that they are furthering the mission or vision of the organization in the course of carrying out their duties. This can breed dysfunction within the organization.

Being both an effective leader and an effective manager is not an easy task. In fact, it will be an extremely difficult and challenging to handle both at the same time. Being an effective requires leadership skills in communication, cultural awareness, facilitating teamwork and listening skills. Additionally, having a high degree of Emotional Intelligence is also a critical skill that many leaders lack or are not effective at employing. Managerial skills, on the other hand, are primarily centered on the officers' performance appraisal reviews and require participation in recruitment or promotion boards.



It is crucial that the skills that separate leaders from managers are identified early in potential leaders. There are a number of ways to do this. The most direct way is to observe how officers conduct themselves in their job duties. First, supervisors should watch how all officers interact with their peers, subordinates, superiors, and members of the community and public. They should display the interpersonal skills discussed above. Additionally, if and how they influence others around them should be considered. Supervisors should assess how well officers work together in a team setting. How well do they cooperate with others? Are they able to take instruction? Can they give instruction in ways that foster cooperation? Officers who are unable to either take direction or foster cooperation will not make effective leaders. However, an important part of leadership is being able to do these things.

Next, supervisors should pay attention to how officers conduct themselves as they carry out their job duties. Officers who display honesty, integrity, and active listening skills demonstrate potential leadership. What type of worker a person is tells a lot about their character. Supervisors should pay attention to officers' attitudes towards their jobs. Those officers who simply show up to work and do the bare minimum of their responsibilities should not be considered for leadership positions because those habits will carry over into their promotion. When promoted, they should not take their upward mobility for granted. Lastly, leaders should pay attention to those officers who go beyond serving their own needs and agenda.

There are a few ways leaders can search for and identify potential leaders. Besides simply observing officers and utilizing performance evaluations, they should take the time to speak to officers about the strengths of weaknesses of how they feel they carry out their job. They should cultivate a working environment where officers feel comfortable speaking about their own experiences at work, as well as be accepting of mistakes as learning opportunities. Doing so will

create a work culture that is conducive to productivity as well as leadership skills. Another important factor is training. Law enforcement supervisors should encourage officers to attend trainings throughout their careers, especially trainings on leadership skills. Continuing education is important because, as several of the interviewees discussed, effective leaders are open to learning new things, the field of law enforcement is constantly evolving, whether it be through technological changes or changes in the public perception of the profession. Encouraging officers to continue their own education and training throughout their careers will help them develop potential leadership and help supervisors identify potential leadership.

One limitation for this is that it requires current leaders to actually be paying attention to their officers' attitudes. Given the amount of work on a supervisor's plate and the number of officers they must oversee, this is a difficult task. No supervisor can supervise all officers at all times. Additionally, they must understand the implications of the behaviors they witness. For example, an officer may be ordered out on a call, but instead of going to the scene simply writes that he was unable to contact the reporting party in order to avoid having to do the work of writing a report. Not only is this an immediate problem, but also it calls longer-term issues of that officer's leadership skills into question. It shows a lack of honesty and integrity, means the person has refused to work as a team, and that they would put their own short-sighted goals before the mission of their agency.

### **Recommendations for Future Research**

This study attempted to discover relationships between personality and leadership effectiveness among law enforcement executives at all levels: local, state and federal. A review of the current literature indicates that similar research specific to this population does not exist. Consequently, the findings of this study are observed as a launching pad for further studies. This

study defined *law enforcement executive* as an officer holding the rank of Commander or above and as high as Senior Executive Service or Honorary Mayor. It is plausible that majority of them behave and lead differently than lower ranked leaders of sergeants and front line supervisors. A valuable endeavor would be to design a study strictly defining law enforcement executive as the head of the agency. From the analysis of the data revealed when leaders describing their leadership styles, the law enforcement leaders showed evidence of the ability to use various traits for different situations. The leaders predominately believe that they are visionary leaders and use transformational leadership characteristics as their primary leadership style. Mentoring and internal training seemed to be believed to be of considerable importance in law enforcement, primarily because most of their leaders are promoted up the ranks instead of being hired from outside organizations.

**Characteristics of successful leaders in law enforcement.** Just as it is important to understand why some new leaders in law enforcement are unsuccessful and can not complete their obligated terms, it is also important to identify if there are characteristics, competencies, and professional experiences that predict the success of a new police chiefs or Senior Executive Service. If such a correlation exists, it would help the selection board or any Mayor who nominates police Chiefs to make political appointee selection decisions, and would help aspiring chiefs or Senior Executive Service prepare effectively for the position. Accordingly, future researchers may wish to explore the existence of a correlation between the characteristics, competencies, and professional experiences possessed by newly hired police chiefs or Senior Executive Service and the likelihood of success in his/her new role. The use of different methodologies and climate survey to measure both personality and leadership effectiveness would be a worthwhile endeavor. Numerous instruments or methodologies are available to

researchers in this arena that provide very distinctive paradigms defining personality and leadership effectiveness. The following three Leadership Development Strategies are recommended:

- Assess Performance and Identify Leadership Talent: Pre-supervisory initiative for aspiring leaders
- Recruit, Promote and Retain leaders: Include instruction regarding identification, recruitment and how to retain leaders.
- Train, develop and educate leaders: Develop training courses for newly selected Chiefs or Senior Executive Services

The findings of such studies, whether in support or conflict with this research study, would add to the body of knowledge in this area. Clearly, the study of leadership in the law enforcement practice is an under-researched area that needs more focus and attention.

## **Conclusion**

It is crucial to understand what makes leadership effective for those in law enforcement organizations. The concepts that emerged during the interviews highlighted that leadership is a process, rather than an activity or title, that takes place in all aspects at all levels of an organization. All law enforcement professionals are able to influence and display leadership both in the agency they work for as well as the community they serve. Anyone within the force can engage in leadership through being a committed, engaged, and hard-working member of the agency who consistently behaves according to the organization's mission, purpose, and values (Cilente, 2009).

In order to ensure that effective leadership occurs in law enforcement, current leaders need to identify the key characteristics discussed in employees before they promote. Leadership

skills can be cultivated by the organizational environment as well as through training. This must be done prior to an officer's promotion, to ensure that the officer will be an effective leader and to ensure that current leaders are able to guide the process.

Of course, what makes a great leader must be identified. One school of thought suggests that good leaders have an innate set of skills that make them strong leaders. These skills are unique and rare. The other school of thought argues that good leaders are made. Traits and skills that make an effective leader can be taught and cultivated, through education, action, and experience. This research sought to identify what traits and qualities make a good leader. In regards to the common assumption themes with regards to their followers, the common leadership characteristics are summarized on the following pages with common themes linked in ways that answer questions about education, transformation, and leadership style.

Based on the data collected during this study, officers who possess personality traits such as honesty, integrity and compassion are strong candidates for potential leadership. They should be community-oriented and have values that mirror those of their organization. They respect subordinates as much as they respect peers and superiors, and also respect the community members that they come into contact with in the course of carrying out their job duties. Officers who demonstrate potential leadership work well in team settings. Overall, officers who should be considered for potential leadership have strong interpersonal skills, support the goals of the organization through action, hold themselves to the same standards as others are held, and are mindful of the influence that public relations has on law enforcement agencies.

This potential leadership, however, is not valuable if it is not identified and cultivated. Current leaders should constantly be aware of these qualities in their officers. Training and education should include these leadership skills. Identifying and cultivating potential leadership

is important because it promotes organizational functionality, which allows law enforcement officers to better do their jobs serving the community, which makes communities more secure.

Since leadership is one of the most important factors that contributes to the health and efficiency of an organization, it is important not only for academics to study it but also for those in leadership positions to understand it. Leadership can profoundly affect how poorly or well officers do their jobs. Poor leadership will depress morale; strong leadership will inspire officers to do good work. The impact of leadership can be magnified if the leaders have influence on the individual officer or multiple officers within a shared environment (More, 2003). Additionally, leadership can impact the work environment and the health of the organization. As discussed earlier, there is sometimes a divide between how supervisors and officers prioritize different job responsibilities. There is certainly a difference in the working conditions between an officer patrolling the streets of a community and a law enforcement supervisor who sits at a desk and who no longer has to go out in the field. There is also often a difference in how supervisors and officers perceive organizational policies, visions, or missions. When this gap is not bridged, or when officers feel their supervisors are not taking their concerns or experiences seriously, a law enforcement agency will suffer. Officers will feel their supervisors do not support them, and that they cannot trust their leaders. Therefore, it is the job of an effective leader to bridge this gap for the sake of the health of the agency.

Law enforcement leaders face challenges that are consistent with leaders more than other organizations and professions. The major difference seems to be that law enforcement leaders have a strong development and mentoring role. This is due to the fact that they most of the members of the organizations are hired at a young age and move up the ranks rather than being hired in with the leadership skills that are needed to be a successful leader. These law

enforcement leaders showed evidence of the ability to use various traits for different situations. The leaders predominately believe that they are visionary leaders and use transformational leadership characteristics as their primary leadership style. Mentoring and internal training seemed to be believed to be of considerable importance in law enforcement, primarily because most of their leaders are promoted up the ranks instead of being hired from outside organizations.

The implications of this research for law enforcement are that understanding what how to identify strong leadership characteristics can make law enforcement agencies for functional, which makes them more capable of carrying out their missions. Importantly, they will be able to better serve their communities, making for a more peaceful world for the public as well as themselves.

## REFERENCES

- Aktouf, O. (1992). Management and theories of organizations in the 1990s: Toward a critical radical humanism? *The Academy of Management Review*, 17(3), 407-431.  
Retrieved from: <http://www.jstor.org/stable/258717>
- Ames, D. & Flynn, F. (2007). What breaks a leader: The curvilinear relation between assertiveness and leadership. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 92(2), 307-324. Retrieved from: <http://ssrn.com/abstract=954716>
- Bannish, H., & Ruiz, J. (2003). The antisocial police personality: A view from the inside. *International Journal of Public Administration*, 26(7), 831-881.  
doi:10.1081/PAD-120019322
- Bass, B. M., Avolio, B., Jung, D., & Berson, Y. (2003). Predicting unit performance by assessing transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 88(2). 207-218. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.88.207
- Bass, B. M. (1995). Concepts of leadership: The beginnings. In J. T. Wren (Ed.) *The leader's companion: Insights on leadership through the ages*. (pp. 49-52). New York, NY: The Free Press. Retrieved from: <https://books.google.com>
- Bass, B. M., & Riggio, R. E. (2006). *Transformational leadership* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Behn, R. D. (2003). Why Measure Performance? Different Purposes Require Different Measures. *Public Administration Review* 63(5), 587-606. doi:10.1111/1540-6210.00322
- Bennis, W., & Narnus, B. (2001). *Leaders: The strategies for taking charge*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- Boyatzis, R. E. (1998). *Transforming qualitative information: Thematic analysis and code development*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- Cilente, K. (2009). An overview of the social change model of leadership. In S. R. Komives & W. Wagner (Eds.) *Leadership for a better world: Understanding the social change model of leadership development*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Conger, J. (1990). The dark side of leadership. *Organizational Dynamics*, 19(2), 44-55.  
doi:10.1016/0090-2616(90)90070-6
- Conger, J., & Fulmer, M. (2003). Developing your leadership pipeline. *Harvard Business Review* 81(12), 76-84. Retrieved from: <https://hbr.org/2003/12/developing-your-leadership-pipeline>



- Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Dearlove, D. (2003). Interview: Manfred Kets de Vries: The dark side of leadership. *Business Strategy Review* 14(3), 25-28. doi: 10.1111/1467-8616.00269
- Engel, R., & Worden, R. (2003). Police officers' attitudes, behavior, and supervisory influences: An analysis of problem solving. *Criminology*, 41(1), 131-166. doi:0.1111/j.1745-9125.2003.tb00984.x
- Federal Bureau of Investigation. (2014). *FBI Climate Survey*. Retrieved from: FBI Intranet.
- Goleman, D. (2004). What makes a leader? *Harvard business review*, 82(1), 82-91. Retrieved from: <https://hbr.org/2004/01/what-makes-a-leader>
- Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R., & McKee, A. (2002). *Primal leadership: Learning to lead with emotional intelligence*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Greenleaf, R. K. (2002). *Servant leadership: A journey into the nature of legitimate power and greatness*. Mahwah, NJ: Paulist Press.
- Greenleaf, R. K. (2008). *The servant as leader*. Indianapolis, IN: The Robert K. Greenleaf Center.
- Haber, P. (2010). Progressive Leadership. In K Agard (Ed.), *Leadership in Nonprofit Organizations: A Reference Handbook* (pp. 312-320). Retrieved from: books.google.com
- Heifetz, R. A., Grashow, A., & Linsky, M. (2009). *The practice of adaptive leadership*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business Press.
- Hersey, P. & Blanchard, K. (1982). Leadership style: attitudes and behaviors. *Training and Development Journal* 36(5), 50-52. Retrieved from: [www.ebscohost.com](http://www.ebscohost.com)
- Irving, J. A. (2004). *Evaluating the reliability and validity of the Dark Side of Leadership Profile*. Proceedings of the International Leadership Studies Conference. Retrieved from: [http://people.bethel.edu/~irvjus/PDF/ILSC\\_2004\\_Dark%20Side\\_Irving.pdf](http://people.bethel.edu/~irvjus/PDF/ILSC_2004_Dark%20Side_Irving.pdf)
- Johnson, N., & Klee, T. (2007). Passive-aggressive behavior and leadership styles in organizations. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies* 14(2), 130-142. doi:10.1177/1071791907308044

- Katz, R. (1974). Skills of an effective administrator. *Harvard Business Review* 52(5), 90-102. Retrieved from: <https://hbr.org/1974/09/skills-of-an-effective-administrator>
- Keeney, S., Hasson, F., & McKenna, H. (2006). Consulting the oracle: Ten lessons from using the Delphi technique in nursing research. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 53(2), 205-212. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2648.2006.03716.x
- Kelly, S. P. (1977). The administrative hiring process. *Liberal Education*, 43(3), 443- 452.
- Kirkpatrick, S., & Locke, E. (1991). Leadership: do traits matter? *Academy of Management Executive*, 5(2), 48-60. Retrieved from: <https://sites.fas.harvard.edu/~soc186/AssignedReadings/Kirkpatrick-Traits.pdf>
- Kramer, M., and Schmalenberg, F. C. (1991). Job satisfaction and retention insights for the '90s, part 2. *Nursing*, 21(4), 51-55. Retrieved from: [journals.lww.com](http://journals.lww.com)
- Lang, T. (1994). *An overview of four futures methodologies: Delphi, environmental scanning, issues management and emerging issue analysis*. Retrieved from <http://www.futures.hawaii.edu/j7/LANG.html>
- Linstone, H. A., & Turoff, M. (1975). *The Delphi method: Techniques and applications*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Lord, R. G., De Vader, C. L., & Alliger, G. M. (2001). A meta-analysis of the relation between personality traits and leadership perceptions: An application of validity generalization procedures. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71(3), 402-410. Retrieved from: [www.ebscohost.com](http://www.ebscohost.com)
- Lorinskas, R. A. & Kulis, J. C. (1986). The military model and policing: Misunderstood ideology. *Police Studies*, 9(4), 184-193. Retrieved from: [ncjrs.gov](http://ncjrs.gov)
- Mann, R. D. (1998). A review of the relationships between personality and performance in small groups. *Psychological Bulletin* 56(4), 241-270. Retrieved from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/h0044587>
- Mayer, J. D., Caruso, D. R., & Salovey, P. (1999). Emotional intelligence meets traditional standards for an intelligence. *Intelligence* 27(4), 267-298. doi:10.1016/S0160-2896(99)00016-1
- McIntosh, G. L., and Rima, S. D. (1997). *Overcoming the dark side of leadership: The paradox of personal dysfunction*. Grand Rapids, MI: Baker Books.
- Miller, H. T., (2005). Performance, results and outcomes: A problem. *PA Times*, 28(6). 6. Retrieved from: [www.ebscohost.com](http://www.ebscohost.com)

- More, H., Wegener, W., & Miller, L. (2003). *Effective police supervision* (4<sup>th</sup> ed). Cincinnati, OH: Anderson Publishing.
- Northouse, P. (2007) *Leadership: Theory and Practice* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publishing.
- United States Office of Personnel Management [Website]. (n.d.). Leadership assessments. Retrieved from: <https://www.opm.gov/services-for-agencies/assessment-evaluation/leadership-assessments/#url=Overview>.
- Palmer, P. J. (1994). *Let your life speak: Listening to the voice of vocation*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Raskin, R., & Hall, C. (1979). A narcissistic personality inventory. *Psychological Reports*, 45, 590. Retrieved from: [www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov)
- Rogers, C. (1991). Existential theory. In E. Griffin (Ed.) *A first look at communication theory* (pp. 168-174). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill, Inc.
- Rost, J. (1991). *Leadership for the twenty-first century*. New York, NY: Praeger.
- Rubin, H. J., & Rubin, I. S. (2005). *Qualitative interviewing: The art of hearing data*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Rubenzler, S. J., & Faschingbauer, T. R. (2004). *Personality, character, and leadership in the White House: Psychologists assess the presidents*. Lincoln, NE: Potomac Books.
- Schein, E. H. (1992). *Organizational culture and leadership* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Simonton, D. K. (2010). Personality and leadership. In R. Couto (Ed.) *Political and Civic Leadership* (pp. 630-640). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Stogdill, R. M. (1948). Personal factors associated with leadership: A survey of the literature. *Journal of Psychology*, 25(1), 35-71. doi:10.1080/00223980.1948.9917362
- Stogdill, R. M. (1998). *Handbook of leadership: A survey of theory and research*. B. M. Bass (Ed.). New York, NY: Free Press.
- Van Maanen, J. (1975). Police socialization: A longitudinal examination of job attitudes in an urban police department. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 20(2), 207-228. doi:10.2307/2391695
- Whitman, N. L. (1990). The committee meeting alternative: Using the Delphi technique. *Journal of Nursing Administration*, 20(7/8), 30-36. Retrieved from: <http://journals.lww.com/>

Yukl, G. (1989). Managerial leadership: A review of theory and research. *Journal of Management*, 15(2), 251-289. doi:10.1177/014920638901500207

Yukl, G., & Kanuck, L. (1979). Leadership behavior and effectiveness of beauty shop managers. *Personnel Psychology*, 32(4), 663-675. doi:10.1111/j.1744-6570.1979.tb02339.x

APPENDIX A  
IRB Approval Letter



Pepperdine University  
24255 Pacific Coast Highway  
Malibu, CA 90263  
TEL: 310-506-4000

**NOTICE OF APPROVAL FOR HUMAN RESEARCH**

Date: January 12, 2016

Protocol Investigator Name: Chaiyant Chanchang

Protocol #: 15-10-109

Project Title: The Next Generation of Leaders in Law Enforcement, Critical Characteristics, Competencies, Selections and Professional Experiences.

School: Graduate School of Education and Psychology

Dear Chaiyant Chanchang:

Thank you for submitting your application for exempt review to Pepperdine University's Institutional Review Board (IRB). We appreciate the work you have done on your proposal. The IRB has reviewed your submitted IRB application and all ancillary materials. Upon review, the IRB has determined that the above entitled project meets the requirements for exemption under the federal regulations 45 CFR 46.101 that govern the protections of human subjects.

Your research must be conducted according to the proposal that was submitted to the IRB. If changes to the approved protocol occur, a revised protocol must be reviewed and approved by the IRB before implementation. For any proposed changes in your research protocol, please submit an amendment to the IRB. Since your study falls under exemption, there is no requirement for continuing IRB review of your project. Please be aware that changes to your protocol may prevent the research from qualifying for exemption from 45 CFR 46.101 and require submission of a new IRB application or other materials to the IRB.

A goal of the IRB is to prevent negative occurrences during any research study. However, despite the best intent, unforeseen circumstances or events may arise during the research. If an unexpected situation or adverse event happens during your investigation, please notify the IRB as soon as possible. We will ask for a complete written explanation of the event and your written response. Other actions also may be required depending on the nature of the event. Details regarding the timeframe in which adverse events must be reported to the IRB and documenting the adverse event can be found in the *Pepperdine University Protection of Human Participants in Research: Policies and Procedures Manual* at [community.pepperdine.edu/irb](http://community.pepperdine.edu/irb).

Please refer to the protocol number denoted above in all communication or correspondence related to your application and this approval. Should you have additional questions or require clarification of the contents of this letter, please contact the IRB Office. On behalf of the IRB, I wish you success in this scholarly pursuit.

Sincerely,

Judy Ho, Ph.D., IRB Chairperson

cc: Dr. Lee Kats, Vice Provost for Research and Strategic Initiatives

## APPENDIX B

## Blank Consent Letter

## PEPPERDINE UNIVERSITY

**INFORMED CONSENT FOR PARTICIPATION IN RESEARCH ACTIVITIES****The Next Generation of Leaders in Law Enforcement, Critical Characteristics, Competencies, Selections and Professional Experiences.**

You are invited to participate in a research study conducted by Chaiyant Chanchang, Doctoral Degree Candidate student, under the supervision of Dr. Ronald Stephens, Dissertation Chair at Pepperdine University, because you are one of the highly respected leader within your agency. Your participation is voluntary. You should read the information below, and ask questions about anything that you do not understand, before deciding whether to participate. Please take as much time as you need to read the consent form. You may also decide to discuss participation with your family or friends. If you decide to participate, you will be asked to sign this form. You will also be given a copy of this form for you records.

**PURPOSE OF THE STUDY**

The purpose of the study is to conduct a research study about The Next Generation of Leaders in Law Enforcement, Critical Characteristics, Competencies, Selections and Professional Experiences.

**STUDY PROCEDURES**

If you agree to voluntarily to take part in this study, you will be asked to participate in a 30 minute audio-taped interview. You do not have to answer any questions you don't want to; if you don't want to be taped, handwritten notes will be taken.

**POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS**

There are no anticipated risks or discomforts.

**POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO PARTICIPANTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY**

There are no anticipated benefits to the participant.

**CONFIDENTIALITY**

I will keep your records for this study confidential as far as permitted by law. However, if I am required to do so by law, I may be required to disclose information collected about you. Examples of the types of issues that would require me to break confidentiality are if you tell me about instances of child abuse and elder abuse. Pepperdine's University's Human Subjects Protection Program (HSPP) may also access the data collected. The HSPP occasionally reviews and monitors research studies to protect the rights and welfare of research subjects. The data (audio, or transcripts) will be stored on a password protected computer in the principal investigators place of Mr. Chaiyant's secured office at FBI Los Angeles Field office. The data will be stored for a minimum of three years. The data collected will be coded, and password

protected. There will be no identifiable information obtained in connection with this study. Your name, address or other identifiable information will not be collected. Any identifiable information obtained in connection with this study will remain confidential. Your responses will be coded with a pseudonym and transcript data will be maintained separately. The audio-tapes will be destroyed once they have been transcribed.

### **PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL**

Your participation is voluntary. Your refusal to participate will involve no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. You can still participate in this interview, even though you do not want to be audio recorded.

### **ALTERNATIVES TO FULL PARTICIPATION**

Your alternative is to not participate. Your relationship with your employer will not be affected whether you participate or not in this study.

### **EMERGENCY CARE AND COMPENSATION FOR INJURY**

If you are injured as a direct result of research procedures you will receive medical treatment; however, you or your insurance will be responsible for the cost. Pepperdine University does not provide any monetary compensation for injury

### **INVESTIGATOR'S CONTACT INFORMATION**

I understand that the investigator is willing to answer any inquiries I may have concerning the research herein described. I understand that I may contact Dr. Ronald Stephens, Dissertation Chair, Pepperdine University, [Ronald.stephens@pepperdine.edu](mailto:Ronald.stephens@pepperdine.edu) if I have any other questions or concerns about this research. If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, contact Dr. Judy Ho, Chairperson of the Graduate & Professional School Institutional Review Board (GPS IRB) at Pepperdine University, via email at [gpsirb@pepperdine.edu](mailto:gpsirb@pepperdine.edu) or at 310-568-5753.

### **RIGHTS OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANT – IRB CONTACT INFORMATION**

If you have questions, concerns or complaints about your rights as a research participant or research in general please contact Dr. Judy Ho, Chairperson of the Graduate & Professional Schools Institutional Review Board at Pepperdine University 6100 Center Drive Suite 500 Los Angeles, CA 90045, 310-568-5753 or [gpsirb@pepperdine.edu](mailto:gpsirb@pepperdine.edu).

<b>SIGNATURE OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANT</b>
--

I have read the information provided above. I have been given a chance to ask questions. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction and I agree to participate in this study. I have been given a copy of this form.

### **AUDIO/VIDEO/PHOTOGRAPHS**

- I agree to be audio/video-recorded /photographed*
- I do not want to be audio/video-recorded /photographed*

---

**Name of Participant**

---

Signature of

Participant

---

Date**SIGNATURE OF INVESTIGATOR**

I have explained the research to the participants and answered all of his/her questions. In my judgment the participants are knowingly, willingly and intelligently agreeing to participate in this study. They have the legal capacity to give informed consent to participate in this research study and all of the various components. They also have been informed participation is voluntarily and that they may discontinue their participation in the study at any time, for any reason.

---

**Name of Person Obtaining Consent**

---

Signature of Person Obtaining

Consent

---

Date